The Nation.

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The Week.

THE most hopeful development of the canvass for the Republican Presidential nomination is the presentation of Speaker Reed by the Maine convention upon a gold platform. That the Republicans of New York should declare clearly for sound money as they did last month was a foregone conclusion, and consequently their action did not materially affect the development of opinion in the party on this question. But the case of Maine is altogether different. Two years ago the Republicans of that State yielded to the temptation of a shuffling deliverance in favor of "bimetallism," the financial plank in the platform of 1894 declaring for "a financial policy not in favor of monometallism, either of gold or silver, as the basis of a financial system, but international bimetallism, to be secured by strenuous efforts of the national power." Mr. Reed was already then an aspirant for the Presidential nomination in 1896, and this platform of 1894 showed that his managers thought the road to that nomination lay along the path of silence regarding free coinage, and compromise regarding bimetallism. It is therefore an immense gain to find the party in his State this year adopting a platform which, of course, he framed, and which declares that "he is opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver, except by international agreement; and until such agreement can be obtained, he believes the present gold standard should be maintained."

We greatly mistake the temper of the public mind if Mr. Reed's declaration against free coinage and in favor of maintaining the gold standard does not give a great impetus to the movement for his nomination. He has labored thus far in the canvass under the misfortune of not standing for anything in particular, while Mr. McKinley represents the principle of protection. But the principle of sound money, and of the maintenance of the gold standard as essential thereto, is vastly more important than any question of tariffs. Moreover, the country is coming to recognize this fact, and Republicans everywhere outside the silver States are growing more insistent upon a clear statement of the party's attitude. Both the New Jersey and Kentucky conventions on Thursday declared for the gold standard. Even in North Dakota the silver craze has subsided, and the Republican convention on April 15 adopted a resolution squarely opposing free coinage "until it can be arranged by international agreement." Public opinion seems now in the mood in which a determined effort by the business men in the Republican party can avert the threatened danger of the nomination at St. Louis of a man whose character and record on the financial question would, in case of his election, throw doubt upon the maintenance of the gold standard.

If the country wants a President who doesn't know his own mind about the currency, and is only sure that, if he were given a chance to carry out his ideas, he shouldn't know how on earth to do it, Morrison of Illinois is just the man. His open bid for the Democratic nomination is frankly made on a platform of cheerful idiocy. There are a great many puzzling things about this currency business, he sagely remarks. If we go to the silver basis, we shall only have less money of a worse kind, but if we stay by gold, we can easily see that "the property of the financially weak will pass to the strong." For his part, Morrison would like to take a middle path—that is, take to the woods; but "if you are going to ask me how this is to be done, I say frankly I do not see the way."

The Democrats of Missouri held on April 15 their State convention for the choice of delegates to the national convention at Chicago next July. The interest of the gathering centred in its position regarding the silver issue. The result was an overwhelming victory for the advocates of free coinage. They not only put their plank in the platform, but they carried, by a vote of 530 to 5, a resolution instructing their delegates to the national convention to refuse to vote for any person for temporary chairman of that convention who is not a pronounced advocate of the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1, and then, to cap the climax, by a rising vote they put in nomination as their candidate for the Presidency at Chicago next July "Silver Dick" Bland. The sound-money men in the Democratic party should take warning from this action of the Missouri convention. It shows that they must immediately organize their forces and fight for the control of every State convention, or they will find, when they reach Chicago next July, that the majority of the delegates have been elected upon platforms declaring for free coinage. Four conventions have now been held, all of them in States beyond the Mississippi. The success of the silverites in Oregon, Washington, and Colorado was not surprising and is not discouraging. But this cannot be said of the free-coinage vote in the Missouri convention, and the presentation of the wildest silver lunatic in the Union as that State's "favorite son." The friends of sound money were not prepared for so great a defeat.

Secretary Carlisle's address before the Chicago workingmen on April 15 is a good specimen of the kind of argument that should be heard in every part of the country, if we are ever to get a sound currency. With his customary clearness and pungency he illustrated the old truth that the laborer is the first man to be hurt by a depreciated currency and the last man to adjust himself to it. Especially skilful was his turning the flank of the latest silver onset—the Oriental bogy. We cannot long compete with China and Japan, say the silverites, unless we go to the silver basis. They are underselling us now, and will do so more extensively every year unless we get off this terrible gold standard. Workingmen ought to understand that they will soon be out of a job if something is not speedily done for silver. Mr. Carlisle's answer is crushing. Speaking solely from the standpoint of the laboring man, he affirms truly that this is but a thinly disguised proposition to reduce wages one-half. In other words, in order to compete with Japan, the Philadelphia bimetallists say we must pay only Japanese wages. Of course they do not say this openly; they talk learnedly of an international par of exchange and a broader standard of value; but what their proposals really mean is payment of wages in currency depreciated one-half. If it is necessary to reduce wages one-half, the reduction might better be endured on the gold standard. Then a man would at least know what he had got, what his wages would buy; but his silver pay would fluctuate from day to day. This argument knocks all the remaining stuffing out of the Oriental bogy.

Mr. Edward H. Van Ingen has continued his pursuit of the newspapers which published his name in connection with the familiar Cobden Club lie in the campaign of 1892 until he has brought all the chief offenders to the point of retraction. It will be remembered that on the evening before and the morning of the last Presidential election, the Republican press of this country published, under flaring headlines, a statement that Mr. Van Ingen, as an American merchant, had brought home a corruption fund of half a million dollars from the Cobden Club to be used in buying votes for Cleveland. Mr. Van Ingen brought suit against Dalziel's news agency in London for sending the story, and it was compromised by the payment by Dalziel of 200 guineas and costs, amounting to $4,800. He also sued the *Mail and Express* and the *Recorder* of this city, and obtained a verdict against the former of $4,000 and costs and one against the latter of $1,000 and costs. The *Press* also printed the story. It now publishes the confession of Dalziel that "no such fund ever existed, and the re-

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port was entirely unfounded," and adds that, "as this completely exonerates Mr. Van Ingen, it only remains for us to express our regret at having published such false and unfounded charges." The *Press* further pays $3,000 and costs rather than have the case go to trial. We may now reasonably hope to escape the Cobden Club lie in all its forms this year.

The poor Hawaiians must rub their eyes as they read one Republican platform after another and find not a word about their rights, their heroism, their chastity, their coming annexation. In Massachusetts there was a mild affirmation that we should retain "our influence" in Hawaii, yet not a whisper about annexation. But Maine is absolutely dumb about the glorious little republic, soon to be a State in the American Union. This is a very Brutus-blow, as Maine was the most fervent and furious champion of annexation only two short years ago. If the State of Stephens and Blaine and Hale and Boutelle has forsaken the Hawaiians, who will take them up? There is evidence, moreover, that the blow was deliberate and long preparing. The *Hawaiian Gazette* of March 31 published an extract from "a private letter" from Senator Hale, in which he told his anxious and puzzled correspondent that "annexation must wait for a while." But are not three years "a while"? And if annexation is to be left out of this year's State and national platforms, when will it get in, and where? The Hawaiians are slowly learning the sad truth that the Republicans never really cared a pin's worth for them. They temporarily were a fine theme for patriots to roar about, but have been lost sight of altogether in view of the much bigger game that has since been started.

The Senate took happy advantage of Senator Morgan's absence on Wednesday week to ratify the treaty between Great Britain and the United States providing for a commission to determine the damages we must pay for illegal seizures in the Bering Sea. Morgan had intimated a desire to oppose or seriously amend the treaty, and to submit a few more remarks of his cheerful kind extending over a week or two. But a not very mysterious dispensation of Providence has confined him to his house with illness, and the Senate unanimously jumped at the chance to ratify the treaty. This will save our reputation for fair dealing in the matter. As a matter of economy, it would doubtless have been money in our pocket if the last Congress had voted the $425,000 agreed upon by Secretary Gresham and Sir Julian Pauncefote. Damages and expenses under the commission plan are likely to amount to twice that sum; but we have had a good deal of fun blustering and making faces, which is surely worth the difference.

Why does not some one, at some of the colleges, lecture and publish concerning the disappearance of the old form of popular government in the State of New York? We are not indulging in the language of exaggeration or of political invective when we say that very little remains of the old Constitution as redrafted in 1846, and amended in 1864, 1869, 1874, and 1894. In the first place, both the Governor and Legislature, as provided for by that instrument, have practically disappeared as bodies responsible to the people. Neither of them pays undivided attention, and the Legislature pays none whatever, to public opinion as usually expressed in civilized states through their intelligent classes. What they will do touching any measure is not to be ascertained by intercourse with them, and is rarely known to themselves beforehand. The practice of debating, too, for which both houses are organized, and which is presumed as part of their business, has virtually ceased, or is reduced to personal altercation. The intention of the framers of the Constitution, evidently, was that the objection of the mayor of a city to any legislation affecting it should be weighed before its second passage, but that provision has been wholly disregarded. The mayor's veto now simply means a delay of one fortnight, and his opinions on city legislation have no sort of consequence. The Constitution also provided that State offices should be distributed through competitive examination, but it had no sooner been adopted by popular vote than the leading State officers laid their heads together and devised a plan for filling the offices without competitive examination. The Comptroller, too, is a State officer elected for two years, whose duty it is to see that nobody receives money from the State who is not legally entitled to it. The Legislature, now acting under instructions, talks of taking this power from him by enactment, and giving the State money to anybody it pleases. Various other changes have taken place, the most important of which is the lodging in the hands of one man not in office, and therefore not responsible to the people, the whole patronage of the State, and the control of all State legislation, which is in itself a virtual change in the nature of the government. As far as our knowledge goes, these changes are all ignored in the colleges and law schools of the country, as well as in the text-books. The professors and writers keep on talking as if they had not occurred, and as if New York were still governed mainly in the same manner as in 1846.

The Greater New York bill was "jammed through" the Senate on April 15, but with a loss of Republican support, which shows what the measure is costing the party. When it first passed the Senate, only four Republicans voted against it. Finally, this number was increased to eleven, leaving the measure three votes short of the necessary majority. It was saved from defeat by the solid support of the Tammany Senators, who, under Cantor's lead, joined hands with the Platt machine, thus giving indubitable evidence of the Platt-Tammany combine which is behind the bill, and which hopes to make it the first step toward capturing the governments of New York and Brooklyn for an indefinite period by means of bi-partisan Platt-Tammany commissions. It is not surprising that eleven Republican Senators should shrink from the responsibility of placing a burden like this upon their party. At this writing it is very uncertain what the fate of the bill will be in the Assembly. No less than thirty-six Republicans refused to vote for it on its first passage, and if the percentage of increase be as large in that body as it was in the Senate, the bill will fail, even though Tammany gives it solid support.

We doubt if anything quite equal to the proceedings at Tom Platt's rooms in the Fifth Avenue Hotel on Sunday ever occurred in this country. The government of the State was really in operation there. "The callers," says a friendly chronicler, "went in pairs and in threes, and at one time nearly every leading member of the Legislature was in Platt's rooms." The purpose of the convocation was to consider the Greater New York bill. The boss had returned from Florida with the determination of "jamming through" the bill, which was in danger of failing in the Assembly. Congressman Odell, a Republican candidate for the governorship, had been at Albany last week opposing the bill. He called on Platt, and, when his interview was over, declared that his opposition had been merely personal, that he "had always had the highest regard for Mr. Platt," and let it be known that he should not oppose the bill further. Mr. Odell had been through the process known as being "hauled off." He will be a docile Platt dummy now, and, if he makes no more "breaks," the boss may let him run for the governorship. Before Mr. Odell was disposed of, the "leading members" of the Legislature held an executive session of two hours' duration with the boss, and, when that was over, the boss announced: "The Greater New York bill will be passed and Gov. Morton will sign it. It will be passed when we determine to pass it, this week or next week, but it will be passed. Of that there is not the slightest doubt." All the deputy bosses echoed the great man's words, and went about the corridors of the hotel assuring everybody that the bill was "sure to pass." Fish felt so sure of it that he said no caucus would be held. In fact, the caucus had been held, and the legislating for the week to come had all been done in advance.

Our Jingoes must not suppose that war as a national tonic can be reserved exclu-

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sively for their own use. The people they want to fight may insist upon sharing the inspiring draught. Here, for example, is a Spanish writer hinting that all that Spain needs to arouse her from her prostrate condition, and to give her a place again among the great nations of the world, is a jolly good war with the United States. This sentiment is expressed in a pamphlet published recently in Madrid, 'The United States against Spain. By an Optimist.' The optimist is supposed to be Valera. Anyhow, he is some one who knows the United States. He is perfectly aware that the fierce and ignorant outcries against Spain have not come from the American people; they are traceable to reckless politicians and a still more reckless press. Hence, he argues, let the Spanish people be patient, considering the ignoble source of the insults, and expect the good sense and love of justice of the United States to make themselves felt in the end. But if war must come, he concludes, let us think of it as a "salutary crisis," as something that will sink all our differences, make our politics pure and noble, and leave us fronting the world, "all Spaniards." Valera has a fine turn for sarcasm, and he seems here to be making excellent fun of our youthful regenerators by war.

The news from Africa is disquieting. The continuance of the alarm, and the dispatch of fresh troops to Africa, show that a rose-colored view of affairs there is not tenable. Mr. Chamberlain has given notice to President Krüger of the dispatch of the troops, with an explanatory note, which is evidently necessary in order to avoid arousing the old man's suspicions. He does not come to London, and is said to be holding off in order to secure eventually the abrogation of that article of the convention which makes the approval of Great Britain necessary to the validity of any treaty between the Transvaal and any foreign Power. The Boers are said to be very restless under this, so satisfied are they of their power to face Great Britain single-handed. The Transvaal, it is said, has formed an alliance with the other Dutch state, the Orange Free State, and between the two they profess to be able to put 40,000 men in the field, which in a country like Africa is a formidable force, and could be subdued only after a long and bloody conflict, which would, however it ended, leave behind endless hates between the two races, and make the work of government increasingly difficult. It is not believed that war would elevate the character of the Boers and Englishmen. It is noticeable that the tide of Mr. Chamberlain's popularity has begun to slacken a little. The Jameson outbreak was a godsend to him, as his skilful management of it postponed a little longer his grand plan of a Zollverein with the colonies. Should the African trouble be well settled, he must take up this scheme, of which the *Economist* speaks with open contempt, for in one breath he says the policy of free trade can never be abandoned by England, and in the next he proposes to abandon it for the benefit of the colonies.

The new land bill of Lord Salisbury's Government, remitting half the rates on the land and causing a deficit of $7,500,000 in the revenue, is likely to excite a storm of opposition. It is the first attempt to help the land by legislation since the repeal of the corn laws. It is now proved beyond question that the farmers were, down to 1846, completely humbugged on the question of the duties on corn, and that the high price of wheat in England from the close of the war in 1815 until the abolition of the duties, went not into the pockets of the farmers,but into the increase of rent, for the benefit of the landlords. The fight made for protection by the landed interest was, therefore, really a fight for higher rents. The landlords were, however, altogether disappointed as to the effect of the repeal of the corn laws on rent. Rents were never so high as between 1846 and 1876. The land profited prodigiously by the great stimulus to industry given by free trade, and it may be said that down to 1873 the lot of the English squire was one of the happiest on earth. Luxurious living in this class greatly increased. Land was a favorite investment, and marriage settlements were made on a very high scale. The great improvements in transportation made about that time brought the ends of the earth into competition with England. A fall in rents at once ensued, and in twenty years had ruined a large part of the landlords, lowered the price of land about one-half, and effected a radical change in English society. Things have, during the last five years, been going from bad to worse, and the present bill may really be called a measure of relief. It is likely to lead to revolt even in all the Tory boroughs. A large part of the county expenses, which are now taken from the poor-rates raised by the county authorities, are to be paid by the imperial treasury—that is, by other interests. Sir William Harcourt predicted that the time would come when the whole poor-rate would be paid in the same fashion if the Tories had their way.

With regard to the Irish land bill now before the House of Commons, it is to be observed that Irish land legislation began with the encumbered-estates act nearly fifty years ago, when the Irish farmers were not represented. It was then believed, as it is still believed, that English and Scotch members of the House knew better what was good for the Irish than the Irish themselves. Within twenty years it was acknowledged that this bill had not worked well, and that the Legislature had committed a radical mistake in overlooking the fact that, as a rule, all improvements on Irish farms were made by the farmers themselves, and that, therefore, the sale of these improvements under the act as the property of the landlord was a gross wrong and injustice. A Parliamentary title—that is, a title against all the world—was, however, given with each sale. In 1870 this title was disregarded and a new Irish land act was passed, in which the interest of the farmer in the estate thus purchased under a Parliamentary title was disregarded. This is now twenty-five years ago, and it is a solemn and suggestive truth that every Parliament since then, both Whig and Tory, has been occupied mainly with the Irish land question, each party in turn being either promoters or opposers of legislation thereanent. The Tories have brought in bills nearly as often as the Liberals, and the former have adopted and are acting on doctrines which they have pronounced immoral and detestable. Each bill, too, has, as a rule, been brought in by an Englishman who has not been in Ireland at all, or has been there only once, and he denounces its opponents on each occasion as public thieves. There is hardly a doubt that no Irish Parliament, however composed, would in 1850 have gone as far as the House of Commons will in 1896, if it passes Mr. Gerald Balfour's bill.

Recent events in Bulgaria and in Turkey have not, perhaps, received, either in America or in Europe, the attention which they deserve. Our ears have been filled with booms and the noise of Congress. In Europe the affairs of the Transvaal and the English advance toward the Sudan have been uppermost in the newspapers and in the minds of the public. Yet, during this time, the dynasty of Ferdinand of Bulgaria seems to have settled down, or almost to have settled down, upon a solid base. The "conversion" of Prince Boris—a religious incident inadequately described by the word *bouffe*—brought in its train, first, recognition of Ferdinand by Russia and afterward by the Powers, and then his very significant visit to his suzerain, the Sultan. The etiquette of this visit was arranged beforehand in long negotiations. He was given the rank of a sovereign prince. He took precedence even of the Grand Vizier. An imperial palace was allotted to him, and he received the title of Imperial Highness, as if he were a prince of the blood. The Sultan, in fact, lavished on him the most distinguished honors in his gift. He was received like the Prodigal Son. And all this, apparently, because Ferdinand has made his peace with Russia, and because the one man who might have made Bulgaria a nation has been murdered. What the ultimate future of Bulgaria may be, no man can now say; but it is apparent that on her immediate future a seal has been set during these last few weeks.

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ENGLAND ON HER KNEES.

We hope our more eminent bimetallists, and especially President Andrews of Brown University, will read carefully the statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in Parliament on Thursday last. He will there see, as we pointed out to him at the time, how foolish was his talk of "bringing England to her knees" through his own little scheme over two years ago. He will see, too, how foolish was the talk of a good many of his congeners throughout the land who maintained that monometallism was bringing England to her ruin; that if she maintained her reliance on gold, collapse of her financial system was certain. Happily, all through this difficult period her finances have remained in the hands of business men who understood currency and exchange. There never has been any more chance of her changing her standard than of her adopting the Julian calendar. Nothing in the whole discussion has been so droll, and yet so melancholy to those who understood the English mind and polity, as the belief that she would change her standard because Mr. Balfour and some of the professors were bimetallists, because Moreton Frewen said America was unanimous for bimetallism, and because Senator Lodge thought her unkind to silver. All these antics on our side of the water have simply made Englishmen smile.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer says the Treasury was never so full. Consols were never higher, though the interest has been reduced one-half within a century. The deposits in savings banks have never been so great; the deposits in other banks were never so large. The production of gold has never been so great. The bullion reserve in the Bank of England was never so large. The revenue receipts have exceeded the expenditures. "Everything has an upward tendency." The exports, imports, railway earnings, and clearing-house returns all show a great expansion of business. The revenue from wines, spirits, and tobacco and tea has increased. Every class of the community is flourishing except the agriculturists, who, there as here, have now to compete with better soils and climates in all parts of the earth.

This ought to be astonishing reading for an American. We have nearly double the population of Great Britain. We have an immensely greater area of soil; we have far richer resources in coal and iron and other metals. We have a government which we maintain is much better, or at all events dearer to the people who live under it, than the government of Great Britain. We have no army; we have next to no navy. We have no colonies or dependencies. We have little public debt. Yet we are not happy. Wails over the badness of business meet one's eye in every newspaper. We have to borrow money every quarter to keep our paper at par. The success of the loan is received with shouts of triumph, though, while it is being raised, every business man holds his breath. At this moment nearly every man of instruction and ability in the country is working, with great anxiety, to prevent the election of a President and Congress who shall declare fifty cents to be worth a dollar, and abolish the gold standard. The receipts fall below the expenditures. Debts contracted in the war, thirty years ago, remain unpaid. The principal commercial city in the Union is governed by a system of blackmail, carried on by a parcel of ignorant and penniless adventurers from various parts of the Union, who do not conceal their contempt for the population which submits to them.

Now what causes this difference? Nothing material. Our population and resources are, as we have shown, far greater than those of England. Our government, on paper, is as good or better. The difference arises out of the fact that common sense still presides over English affairs. Were our Congress and legislatures to take charge of England to-morrow, by the 1st of December the Treasury would be empty, the Queen would have taken refuge in Berlin, India would have risen in revolt, specie payments would have been suspended, and a bloody war would have commenced with the principal Powers of Europe. All this has been prevented, and public affairs go as smoothly in England as private affairs do in this country, simply by maintaining the supremacy of common sense, which is supplied in this country, unhappily in too small quantities, only by the Constitution. They are not desperately wrong who maintain that we should be better off to-day if governed exclusively by constitutional conventions, meeting only once in ten years.

In England, currency and finance are left by general consent to experts, to men who have given attention to such subjects, or are engaged in the management of currency. A few metaphysicians, or professors, or cranks may proclaim the near approach of ruin if some scheme of theirs be not adopted, but few mind them. They make their little speeches, print their little pamphlets, but the great world of business goes on its way. There are no "gold-bugs" in England. The poorest man is as much interested as Lord Rothschild in having the gold sovereign's quality as a measure of value preserved intact. The idea of submitting currency to a vote at a general election enters no one's head. When the Chancellor of the Exchequer says he will not have a thing, that ends the matter. The ablest men in all branches are still, as a rule, put at the head of affairs for the general good. In London, instead of a commission giving each other the lie for political reasons, the police is governed in silence, order, and admirable discipline by a one-armed Indian officer, whom no one ever dreams of interfering with. This means simply the reign of common sense. It means the application to public affairs of the individual prudence and foresight which make our private affairs a success. It is as much within our reach as the reach of Englishmen. The use of it during the last thirty years would have given us by this time sound finance, light taxation, and a roaring trade. The Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys, instead of ruling us, would be in the almshouse or the jail. The American dollar would be as famous the world over as the English pound.

The fun of it is that we can have this state of things any day we please, and there is evidence on all sides that the great prosperity of England, as set forth in the Chancellor's budget speech, is having a profound effect on what we may call without disrespect second-rate business men in this country. First-rate business men have long been aware of the good trade in England for the last year; but merchants and bankers whose interests and whose views are local and narrow, have known nothing of this. Now they have had the facts thrust upon them in this forcible way, and are set profitably wondering about the causes. England has so long been a sort of hobgoblin in this country, an example mainly of the things to avoid, that it is hard to confess that she is showing us how to do it. But if she is really showing us, and if the good times which she is enjoying do not, for some reason or other, take their way to us as they so often have done in the past, the determination to find out what that reason is and remove it, cannot but strengthen among sensible men. Bismarck said that he wanted the French republic to continue, instead of a monarchical restoration, inasmuch as the republic was a very "salutary hobgoblin" for Germans to gaze upon. The great English surplus and quickened trade and commerce constitute just now a most salutary hobgoblin for Americans.

THE ROAD TO VICTORY.

The first essential to the restoration of prosperity in the United States is assurance of the stability of the currency. Such assurance has not existed for years. The lack of it was the chief cause of the panic of 1893, and continues the main reason for the prolongation of the business depression. What threatens the stability of the currency is the demand of a large fraction of the voters for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, which would involve the substitution of the silver standard for the gold one; and the readiness of prominent politicians in each party, including the leading Republican candidate for the Presidency, to compromise with this dishonest demand by favoring a "bimetallism" that is necessarily incompatible with the maintenance of the gold standard. The election as President of a man whose record makes such a platform the only one on which he could consistently stand, would mean four

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years of constant apprehension as to the safety of our financial system.

The one sure way of averting this peril is the election of a man who can be trusted, upon a platform which pledges his party against free coinage and for the maintenance of the gold standard. Such a result would establish the credit of the nation beyond question, and this would of itself induce a period of great prosperity. Secretary Smith of the Interior Department has expressed the opinion that "the nomination and election by either party of a sound-money man, on a platform declaring briefly and clearly that the dollar of this country should consist of 25.8 grains of gold, and that no legislation should be undertaken to depreciate this dollar, would increase business values in the United States 25 per cent. at once." We believe that this is an underestimate of the good that would be accomplished.

During the summer of 1868, gold ranged at a premium of between 40 and 50. There was an active agitation for the payment of Government bonds in the depreciated greenback currency. Butler in the Republican party and Pendleton in the Democratic advocated the adoption of the policy. Pendleton carried his party with him, and secured the adoption of a platform by the Democratic national convention which declared that "where the obligations of the Government do not expressly state upon their face, or the law under which they were issued does not provide, that they shall be paid in coin, they ought, in right and in justice, to be paid in the lawful money of the United States"—meaning greenbacks, instead of gold, the only coin then current; demanded taxation of Government bonds; and raised the clap-trap cry of, "One currency for the Government and the people, the laborer and the office-holder, the pensioner and the soldier, the producer and the bondholder."

The Republicans snubbed Butler, and nominated Grant upon a platform which contained this clear and explicit declaration in favor of paying the bonds in gold:

> "We denounce all forms of repudiation as a national crime; and the national honor requires the payment of the public indebtedness in the uttermost good faith to all creditors at home and abroad, not only according to the letter, but the spirit, of the laws under which it was contracted."

Although Seymour, whom the Democrats nominated, did not believe in the greenback policy, he "stood upon the platform," and declared, in accepting the nomination, that "the resolutions are in accord with my views." The issue therefore entered into the canvass, and resulted in a strong movement by business men to defeat the Democrats on this ground. Only New York and New Jersey of all the Northern States were returned for Seymour, and his majority in the latter was small, while the count of New York for him has always been considered fraudulent by many.

The first act passed by Congress a fortnight after Grant's inauguration in March, 1869, was "An Act to strengthen the public credit of the United States," which redeemed the pledge of the Republican platform by declaring that "the faith of the United States is solemnly pledged to the payment in coin or its equivalent of all the obligations of the United States not bearing interest, known as United States notes, and of all the interest-bearing obligations of the United States, except in cases where the law authorizing the issue of any such obligation has expressly provided that the same may be paid in lawful money or other currency than gold and silver"; and that "the United States also solemnly pledges its faith to make provision at the earliest practicable period for the redemption of the United States notes in coin."

The consequences of this victory for sound money were immediate and lasting. The premium on gold, which had ranged between 40 and 50 during the summer before the Presidential election, fell to an average of below 35 in the month after that election occurred, and was down to 13 within a year after Grant's inauguration; while specie payments were resumed only ten years later. The Republican party (no less than the country) found that honesty was the best policy in a series of great victories, while the Democratic party has not to this day fully recovered from the discredit brought upon it by its tenderness towards repudiation nearly thirty years ago.

The Republicans can make history repeat itself this year. Bland, as a later Pendleton, will go to the national Democratic convention as the advocate of free silver coinage, and will have a large portion of his party with him in this later movement for repudiation. The masses of the Republican party are sound on this issue. They are sick of "straddles" and "dodges." They are tired of the deceptive talk about "bimetallism." They are ready to welcome as clear and emphatic a declaration for national honesty as was adopted by their party in 1868. Upon such a declaration, and with a candidate who can be trusted upon this issue as implicitly as Grant showed that he could be trusted, the Republicans can sweep the country.

THE FUTURE OF THE CITY.

We do not need to wait for the passage or failure of the Consolidation bill to learn from it the objects of its promoters. The refusal to debate it on its merits, the aid extended to it by the Tammany members of the Legislature, the revelations of Lauterbach, and, though last, not least, the disregard of the vetoes of the two Mayors, all go to show that the improvement of the city government has nothing to do with the scheme. Its originators do not, in fact, deny that it is a plan for the creation of a large number of offices to be divided amicably between the two machines, Croker's and Platt's. Consequently, the observations of the Mayors and of President Low and others on the advantages of consolidation in the abstract were thrown away. Consolidation as a means of improvement of anything whatever is not in the minds of the projectors. Even the "public improvements" which some of them talk of would be simply contracts to be divided between the parties, as the contract for the new aqueduct was.

The last two Legislatures have been, in fact, the most barefaced we have ever had — worse much than Croker's, for Croker's was known to be composed in the main of malefactors, and we flattered ourselves that a change of parties would have given us relief. What has happened since 1884 has shown us that we were mistaken; that in this State at least, the old idea that the Republican party was that of intelligence and reform must be given up, and that we are face to face with a crisis in which neither of the old parties can be called on for redress. Our experience since 1884 shows us that the old device of punishing one party by turning it out and putting the other in power, is no longer available. Should we attempt to apply it next fall, as many undoubtedly will, we shall probably find that Platt and his followers have made such arrangements with Tammany that defeat will not trouble them in the least, and, whichever comes into power, the Republicans will get their share of the spoil. There is every sign now that Platt is very indifferent as to the effect of his measures on the voters, and that his secret support will be given in 1896, and in 1897 too, to the Tammany candidate. The part he is making Mr. Morton play in this programme is its most melancholy feature. There is not the smallest reason for believing that Platt cares in the least who is President if the division of offices in the State is satisfactory to him.

These things are all to be considered by those who are in 1897 to make one more effort to deliver the city. It is becoming clearer every day that, if the thing be done, it must be done by a municipal ticket, that no help is to be expected from the politicians of either party, and that if it fails badly it will probably not be repeated in our time. The "Presidential year" is being successfully used by Platt to strengthen his own power, as the failure of the "Better Element" movement shows. Still, the separate election in 1897 will demonstrate how much there is in the city of real patriotism. But it is not a minute too soon to begin to think about it.

No one who thinks about it can avoid the conclusion that the use made by both parties of the cities of the State for their various "dickers," and the successful employment of men of low character as political leaders, are the result of great ignorance of city affairs on the part of the country constituencies. If one believed that the majority of the

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voters really willed such assemblages as the present Legislature, and really willed with knowledge such measures as the Consolidation bill, one would have to give up completely all faith in democratic government. One would have to admit that the disappearance, even of its forms, was merely a matter of time. One goes on writing and speaking in the belief that people desire good government under republican forms, and that, with more reading and listening, they will finally determine to have it. But the misfortune of the present situation is that the city makes no impression on the country. As a rule, either the city press does not discuss things seriously, or its good faith is suspected. The news and comments of the great picture papers simply amuse people, and the real object of some of the others does not command respect. The country papers are as ignorant about city affairs as newspapers can well be, and the worldly success of the editors depends wholly on their devotion to the party. To quarrel with the Boss means for a country editor the loss of circulation, of advertisements, and of the small patronage through which the Boss keeps the country in good humor.

The situation is not unlike that which prevailed before the war with regard to the slavery question. That fight was largely won by the lecturers, and one of the greatest misfortunes of our time is their disappearance from the scene. We have, it is true, plenty of lecturers still, but they do not touch on questions of the day. They amuse and they gratify curiosity; but they do not attempt to influence opinion. The local paper has it all its own way. The lecturer in the old days, on the other hand, let light from the outer world into a great many places that would have remained dark; and he commanded a hearing not less by his eloquence as a speaker and a writer than by his superior knowledge. If we had people like Chapin, and Curtis, and Phillips, and Emerson, and Beecher going through the country clearing the popular mind on the subject of municipal government, international law, and currency, we should undoubtedly escape, sooner or later, such extraordinary phenomena as the result of our reform movement in this city, as the Jingo excitement after Cleveland's message, and as the nomination of a man like McKinley when the country is threatened with a monetary crisis. We mention these things because it would not be difficult to show that they are the product of pure ignorance. That the Northern mind was not easily aroused by slavery is shown by the fact that for fifty years it held its own in the Northern church and in Northern opinion, its pretensions increasing every year in extravagance, and its contempt for public opinion growing more conspicuous. Men like Platt were, in every State, all on its side. They were beaten by stronger forces than the country paper, and, in our opinion, something should be done to revive the agencies which forty years ago gave righteousness its victory.

ACTION AND INACTION IN EUROPE.

PARIS, April 9, 1896.

I REGULARLY read, always with much interest and pleasure, often with much admiration, what appears under the name of Leo Tolstoi, the famous author of 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karénina.' In the third number, which appeared in March, of a new review, *Cosmopolis*, which calls itself international, as it has three parts, written one in English, one in French, and one in German, there is a curious article by Tolstoi, entitled "Zola et Dumas: le Non agir." It is written in answer to a speech delivered by Zola at the banquet of the General Association of Students, as well as to a letter written shortly before his death by Dumas to a French paper. Tolstoi treats these two documents as representative of the two fundamental forces which act on humanity—the force of routine, which keeps it on the road that it follows; the force of reason and of love, which inclines it towards a higher ideal.

It is rather amusing to find Zola treated as the representative of routine; and why? Because, in his speech to the students, he recommended them to work, and told them that work would make their life happy and cheerful and deliver them from "the torment of the infinite." Tolstoi takes the opposite view; he sees no peculiar virtue in work, and aims to prove that much of what goes under the name of work is bad and detrimental to humanity. His criticism of work is paradoxical, but very clever; to sum it up, he considers work, in our badly organized society, "as a sort of agent of moral anæsthesia, like tobacco, wine, and all our other means of stultifying ourselves so as to cover the disorder and emptiness of our existence." The "non-agir" which Tolstoi places in opposition to the "agir" recommended by Zola and generally by all moralists, economists, and even by poets, as in the beautiful line of Longfellow,

"Act, act in the living present,"

is an approach to the Buddhist *nirvana*. Tolstoi, however, does not go so far as to consider the cessation of thought and of conscience as the supreme object which we ought to try to attain; he begs us to think, to look round, and to consider love and charity as the most important affairs of our human existence. "Seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness, and all these things shall be added unto you."

My mind could not help, while I was reading this Tolstoian theory of "Work not," establishing a relation between it and the present policy of the Russian Government, which might be summed up in two words, "Act not." Russia's diplomacy has been left entirely of late in the hands of Prince Lobanoff, who has an intimate acquaintance with all the courts of Europe, as he has been ambassador in nearly all its capitals; he has become, if not nominally, in reality, a chancellor, a permanent Minister of Foreign Affairs. The late Czar was his own chancellor, but Nicholas II. is very young, and he has shown no desire so far to assume all the responsibilities of diplomacy himself. The policy of Prince Lobanoff has been what Sir James Mackintosh called "a masterly inactivity." Nobody knew better how little Russia had gained by the policy of action which culminated in the Turkish war and ended in the Congress of Berlin. Russia has now entirely changed her manner. She thinks no longer of making war on the "Sick Man"; she allows him time to die.

This policy of inaction has its source not only in the lessons given by the late Turkish war, but also in the events which took place after the war in Bulgaria. Russia had placed a nominee of her own in Sophia; she had organized and officered the Bulgarian army, and had thought her influence for ever paramount in the principality. But she subsequently lost her influence, at least in appearance. After the downfall of Prince Alexander of Battenberg, she saw with much displeasure the Government of Bulgaria fall into the hands of Prince Ferdinand of Coburg (whom she had every reason to consider a favorite of Austria) and of Stambuloff, who was the boldest adversary of Russian influence in the principality. She adopted towards Bulgaria an attitude of "non-activity"; she simply refused to recognize Prince Ferdinand, and she thus hindered his recognition by all the great Powers. For years, Prince Ferdinand tried in vain to conquer the sullen and silent resistance of the late Tsar; he never succeeded, and in the end he had to abandon the anti-Russian party, and, after the death of Stambuloff, he called to power the men who represented the moderate Russian party. It was not enough; we have since seen him making concession after concession to Russia. Young Prince Boris was converted to the orthodox church, and we hear now that a military convention has been proposed, if it is not already signed, between Russia and Bulgaria. This convention practically places Bulgaria, in time of war, in the hands of Russia, as, by its terms, Russian troops may land at Varna and occupy the principality. In this manner, the crossing of the Danube, always a most difficult occupation in front of an enemy, is avoided; what becomes, then, of the defences prepared with so much care and at so much expense by Rumania, which is a sort of vanguard of Austria in the East? It is plain that, by throwing himself into the arms of Russia, Prince Ferdinand has allowed Russia to extend, without a struggle, her sphere of influence in the direction of Constantinople and in the Balkan peninsula. Prince Ferdinand has found it easy to abandon the interests of Austria, which has helped powerfully to maintain him in Sophia during the last few years; he will not find it as easy to separate from Russia, if he ever chooses to do so. A natural attraction is exercised by the Russian orthodox church on the Bulgarian church; and so strong is it that Prince Ferdinand found himself obliged to convert his young son Boris to the national church, feeling that otherwise he would not obtain his own recognition by Russia. Edward Dicey has very well described the situation of what he calls the "peasant state," and, with his usual clearness of apperception, he has seen that the Prince could not be recognized without making great sacrifices to Russia. These sacrifices, which Stambuloff was not willing to make, are now completed, and Bulgaria may be considered as a mere vassal state.

These results have been obtained by Russia's waiting game. The same policy of inaction, of inertia, has given her for the present a paramount influence in Constantinople. It is certainly worthy of remark that, of all the great Powers, Russia, which once professed and which still professes to be the protector of the Christians of the East, has been the least moved by the Armenian massacres. The famous "Bulgarian atrocities," the disorders in the Lebanon which

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caused, under the Second Empire, an armed expedition to Syria, were nothing compared to the appalling horrors of which Asia Minor has been the scene during the last two years. Wholesale massacres of men, women, and children have taken place under the indifferent eyes of the civilized world; and when some sort of intervention by the great Powers was meditated, the chief obstacle came from Russia. France, disarmed and neutralized by the Russian alliance, could not repeat what she had once done in Syria; Russia's veto saved the Turkish Empire from an intervention which at one moment seemed imminent. By mere *vis inertiæ*, Russia became the dominant Power at Constantinople; her advice has become irresistible; her ambassador is omnipotent.

Russia has derived great benefits from her alliance with France, or compact—it is difficult to find a suitable word for an attraction which seemed instinctive on both sides, and which has drawn towards each other two nations placed at two opposite ends of Europe, living under different institutions, and having absolutely different ideals. A common dread, not to say hatred, of Germany is the tie which has united them; but this sentiment has not been allowed by the governments of the two countries to take an offensive form. The alliance is, so to speak, purely defensive, like the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy. The vague but very strong sentiment which is felt in France for the great Power which first showed her some sympathy after the unhappy war of 1870, has proved a greater benefit to Russia than to France. It has helped Russia to put her finances in much better order; no less than six or seven milliards of French money is said to be invested in Russian funds. The Russian Treasury, with the help of France, has been allowed to borrow to an almost unlimited extent, and to make conversions which produce a great economy.

The alliance, however, has not yet been tried on purely political questions—that is to say, on questions of great importance. It is understood that on all minor questions, in every capital, the French and the Russian ministers hold a similar attitude. The first question of great importance as to which the interests of France and of Russia are perhaps not quite similar, has been the recent question of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition to the Upper Nile. This expedition, though it had been preparing for a long time, took Europe by surprise. In Paris the Minister of Foreign Affairs, in his first excitement, sent a semi-official note to the newspapers which was conceived in an almost ominous tone. The French public is really very indifferent to what is going on in the valley of the Nile; it is felt that we have no right to speak loud at Cairo since, at the time of Arabi's revolt, we refused to join the English expedition which put an end to that rising. Our fleet was before Alexandria, with the English fleet, but, at the last moment, much to the surprise of our sailors, it was ordered back to Toulon. We gave at that moment *carte blanche* to England; but our Foreign Office has kept on its old way of interfering in Eastern affairs, and from time to time thinks it necessary to remind England that its occupation of Egypt is and must be only temporary. England invariably answers that it knows its obligations, but remains the judge of the time when the evacuation can be made without endangering the interests and the peace of Egypt.

When the expedition to Dongola was announced, France made objections to the use of the reserve fund, which is under the control of a European commission. Germany, Italy, and Austria gave their consent; Russia could not well separate from France, but it is said that Prince Lobanoff made some remarks on the initiative which France had taken with too much haste, and without first entering into communication with Russia. Russia does not interfere in the interior affairs of France, and treats in the same manner the administrations which succeed each other, sometimes with great rapidity; but when it comes to external affairs which concern all the great Powers, Russia demands that the action to be taken by her in common with France shall be the object of previous negotiation and deliberation. If Russia had been consulted in time in this affair of the Egyptian funds, France would probably have avoided the crisis in which it is now involved. The expedition to Dongola has had the singular result of intensifying the state of complete hostility between our Senate and our Chamber of Deputies. This hostility may have for its consequence a ministerial and, perhaps, what is more serious, a Presidential crisis.

THE NEW DEGREES AT OXFORD.

OXFORD, March 30, 1896.

THE University of Oxford has seldom given its assent to a statute which promised to be of greater importance and more far-reaching consequence than the one passed last year and just now going into actual operation, by which men, not necessarily holding an Oxford B.A., are admitted as candidates for the newly established degrees of bachelor of letters and bachelor of science. It is a measure, moreover, of especial interest and importance to American students, for whose benefit it was in great part intended, throwing open as it does a field of foreign graduate study which previously had been in great measure closed to them. For heretofore the only access to an Oxford degree in course has been through the candidate (of whatever university rank or standing) laying aside his pride of previous degrees, taking the regular entrance examinations of the university, entering as a freshman, and working three years as an undergraduate. For the M.A. he was obliged to pay his fees and keep his name on the books for the required twenty-seven terms from matriculation—a course which few men of previous training could or would adopt. In many respects, then, this new departure is a revolution in the Oxford system, and one hears even now rumors to the effect that it is to be emulated by the still more conservative University of Paris some time in the near future. This will no doubt have a tendency to divert part of the stream of Americans to Germany into other channels—a result which, for some reasons, is by no means to be deplored.

The new degrees are established avowedly to encourage research in Oxford by men already trained and even advanced in specialization. They correspond closely to graduate degrees elsewhere, and are thrown open under conditions which not only recognize work done outside Oxford, but relieve the candidates from some restrictions of ordinary undergraduate work, residence, and examinations. The conditions under which they are established are these: A candidate for either degree must be at least twenty-one years of age, and either be a B.A. of Oxford or give satisfactory evidence of a good general education to a committee of the Board of Faculties. Having satisfied these requirements, he must present a plan of study or a subject of research for the approval of a committee of the Board of Faculty to which his work belongs, and satisfy the committee that (1) this work may be profitably pursued in Oxford, and that (2) he is fitted to undertake the line of research proposed. A minimum of eight terms' residence is required for the degree. The Oxford year of twenty-four weeks, however, is divided for purposes of residence into four terms, in addition to which in any one year a candidate for B.L. or B.Sc. is allowed to reckon forty-two days' residence, not necessarily consecutive, during vacation as a term counting toward the residence requirement for the degree. Any one, moreover, who has kept two years' residence in the University as an undergraduate is eligible for the degree, so far as residence is concerned. After the candidate has proved his age and his general education, and his subject and his special qualifications for grappling with it have been passed upon, he is handed over to a committee of the Board of Faculty under which his work will naturally fall. This, corresponding in all essential respects to a graduate committee elsewhere, supervises and directs his investigation, aids him with advice and counsel, and finally examines him on the results of his work. For upon the completion of eight terms of work and residence the candidate must satisfy his Faculty Board, through its committee, of his fitness to receive the degree, either by such an examination in the subject of his course of special study or research, or by such a dissertation or report of work done as shall meet with the approval of the Board. Any candidate directed to submit a dissertation or report is publicly examined on the ground it covers.

All this is, in its essentials, scope, aim, and method, almost exactly equivalent to the process of obtaining a Ph.D. in an American university. It may be added here that the degrees in letters and science do not lead to the degree of M.A., and that Bachelors of Letters and Science rank immediately after Bachelors of Civil Law and Medicine in the university polity. The titles of the higher degrees in Letters and Science have not as yet been fixed upon, but it is very possible that doctors' degrees analogous to D.C.L. and D.D. will be established.

The "Faculties" under which these degrees are granted correspond more or less exactly to the "departments" of an American university. For the purposes of this statute they are eight in number, Theology, Law, Medicine, Literæ Humaniores, Natural Science (including Mathematics), Oriental Languages, Modern History, and English Language and Literature. And in order to give some idea of the ground covered and the instruction offered in each, it may be worth while to enumerate the subdivisions in some detail.

Theology, Law, and Medicine are regarded as "superior" faculties, and the two former are divided into (1) a specific superior course leading to B D. and D.D., and B.C.L. and D.C.L., accessible only to those already holding a B.A., and (2) a "school" in which an undergraduate reads for a B.A. as he would in any other school, like modern history or natural science. Theology covers (*a*) the Holy Scriptures, (*b*) Dogmatic and Symbolic Theology, (*c*) Ecclesiastical History, (*d*) Evidences of Religion, (*e*) Liturgies, (*f*) Sacred Criticism and Archæology, (*g*) Hebrew. Law comprises (*a*) Jurisprudence, (*b*) Roman Law, (*c*) English Law, (*d*) History of Legal and Political Institutions, (*e*) International Law. Literæ Humaniores includes (*a*) Greek and Latin Languages, (*b*) Greek and Roman History, (*c*) Logic, and

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Moral and Political Philosophy. Medicine covers Human Anatomy, Physiology, Medicine, etc., in addition to the general subjects under Natural Science. Under Natural Science are included (*a*) Mathematics, (*b*) Physics, (*c*) Chemistry, (*d*) Animal Physiology, (*e*) Animal Morphology, (*f*) Botany, (*g*) Geology, (*h*) Astronomy. Oriental Languages comprise (*a*) Sanskrit, Indian History, Literature, Religious and Comparative I. E. Grammar, (*b*) Arabic Language, Literature, History, Epigraphy, and Theology, (*c*) Hebrew Language, Literature, History, and Epigraphy, (*d*) Persian Language, History, Philology. Modern History covers (*a*) History of England, Political and Constitutional, (*b*) a period of general European history—six in number, from 476-1815, (*c*) a special subject, like Italy 1492–1513, (*d*) Political Science and Political Economy. English Language and Literature includes (*a*) portions of English authors like Chaucer, etc., (*b*) History of the Language, including Gothic, Old and Middle English, (*c*) History of English Literature, (*d*) a "special subject" in language or literature, chiefly foreign.

This outline will convey an idea of the general lines of instruction offered here; for as the whole system leads up to the schools' examinations under their respective Boards of Faculties, it follows that the main strength and body of the instruction is directed to preparing men for these. On the other hand, of course, the diversity of choice is greater than appears at first sight. Modern history, for instance, covers Indian history, geography, and palæography; law includes Indian law; Oriental languages, some six Indian dialects, besides Burmese, Turkish, Chinese, and the like; while natural science takes both agriculture and anthropology under its protecting wing. There is, it need not be said, a considerable body of teaching devoted to modern languages, including Russian, besides Prof. Rhŷs's admirable Celtic, which has not yet risen to the dignity of a school. So, while the schools system defines arbitrarily and not always felicitously the provinces of human knowledge, there is still a considerable range of selection within these limits.

Moreover, the candidate for the new degrees is fortunately little hampered by this schools system in any direction. The list given above is rather indicative of what, in the meaning of the statute, may profitably be pursued at Oxford—of what, that is, there are men here to advise him about and direct him in his work. It is not intended as a list of courses of lectures to be taken for a degree, for, under the present construction of the statute, the candidate is not supposed to go into a school on the same footing as a candidate for the B.A. The primary intention is that of highly specialized work on a subject or period *already selected*, leading up primarily to a dissertation; and though the candidate may and doubtless will avail himself of lectures, his real work will be that of his thesis. Undergraduate instruction here is not, of course, in the hands of the University, but is given by the colleges or by the delegacy for unattached students, which in its practical working throws the student into the hands of a tutor who directs all his movements. The new statute, however, while treating the candidate for B.L. or B.Sc. as an ordinary undergraduate in every other respect, puts him in the hands of the University, answerable to it and directed by it through its committee.

A word as to the more practical details may not be out of place. An intending candidate should arm himself with proofs of identity, age, and acquirements in the shape of birth certificate, diploma, and certificates of work done, and even personal letters from previous instructors. He should by all means have some definite piece of work selected, if possible—certainly some definite subject or period to offer—and be prepared, if necessary, to pass a general preliminary examination upon it if required. It is advisable in many ways to join a college, if possible, and even to live in college, at least for a time, for in no other way can one come under the peculiar influence of atmosphere and association on which so much stress is laid in the Oxford system. And, however one may sneer at restrictions as to the meaning of cap and gown, being in by 10 P. M. under penalty of a fine, and a dozen others, even these seem to lend a certain charm to the life here, which is almost ideal in so many other respects.

As to the facilities for work outside the routine of lectures, it is impossible even to touch upon most of them. The first and greatest of these, the Bodleian Library (with its annex, the Radcliffe), as to size, ease of access, facilities for work, and, above all, the invariable kindness and courtesy of those in charge, is hardly to be equalled anywhere. There are, too, great stores of books and MSS. in the less accessible college libraries and in the museums. There are the great archæological, antiquarian, art, ethnological and scientific collections, together with the Botanic Gardens, the various laboratories (college as well as university), and institutions like the Indian Institute devoted to subjects connected with the Indian Empire, and the Taylorian to those connected with the study of modern languages. There is, too, perhaps a greater number of men engaged in advance research in Oxford than almost anywhere else in the world—men with or without official connection with the University or with colleges, who, though they may not lecture, are generally accessible for advice or consultation, and who, by their very presence, do much towards maintaining the atmosphere and tradition of learning that hang about the place, and insensibly form such a great factor in the training of men who come to this, perhaps the most dignified, certainly the most beautiful seat of learning in the world.

WILBUR C. ABBOTT.

Correspondence.

THE RUSSIAN BRYCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *Slavica non leguntur* was the categorical statement of a savant of bygone days. Since then the German countries have become the strongholds of Slavic philological learning, and France has produced some good works in the Russian language that enjoy the respect of Slavic scholars, while the name of good translations from Russian into German and French is legion. America, with its traditional friendship for Russia, has up to date shown but a spurious interest in the intellectual movement of its nearest trans-oceanic neighbor, and thus makes true the statement, *Slavica non leguntur*. With the praiseworthy exception of one or two writers who know Russia and Russian, the translations and compilations made in this country are unreliable and often worthless. But of this another time.

Until very lately Russians knew just as little of America and Americans, their acquaintance not rising above a reading of the literary productions that have become the possession of the whole English-speaking world, and with it of the world at large. Now, through the excellent articles by A. P. Tverskoy that have appeared in various leading Russian journals and weeklies, it is possible to gain as clear an insight into American life as through the pages in Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' These articles have been conveniently collected in a well-printed volume bearing the title, 'Sketches from the United States of North America' (St. Petersburg, 1895), and containing in 460 pages the following heads: Ten Years in America—The Presidential Campaign of 1892—My Life in America—Letters—The World's Fair.

In these there is unrolled a wealth of personal observations and experiences but rarely found in one man. It is the history of the intellectual transformation of a Russian emigrant into a stanch American; it is the joyous message of free America to the East of Europe. The autobiography of the author reads like a fairy-tale. He arrived in America in 1881 with a copy of Ollendorff in his hands and slender means. Of America he knew nothing, and he wanted to become a farmer, though as a nobleman and soldier he had never put his hands to a plough. He settled in Florida, worked in a sawmill, acquired a practical knowledge of its running, and entered into partnership with two Americans, whom he bought out in one year. By diligence and shrewd investments he in a few years had laid by enough money to take the contract for the building of a railroad. A few years later he became the superintendent of a large railroad system. Within eight years he was the owner of a large sawmill, wood-planing establishments, general stores, a railroad-carriage factory, a railroad with its branches, vessels and steamships, a million acres of land granted by State and private individuals, several towns along the line of railroad, etc., etc. He founded the city of St. Petersburg in Florida, became mayor of a town, and held several political offices. He has now retired from business and lives a happy life on his estates in Southern California.

In his short but brilliant career Mr. Tverskoy has had ample opportunity to become acquainted with American life in all its minutiæ, and he has acquitted himself of his difficult task of critic with remarkable success. It is to be hoped that his work may become accessible to an American public in an English translation, that Americans may have again a chance to see themselves as others see them.

LEO WIENER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

RUFUS KING'S CORRESPONDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The portion of the dispatch from Rufus King to the Secretary of State which remains in cipher in King's edition of Rufus King's Correspondence, vol. iii., p. 398, may be found deciphered in Am. State Papers, Foreign Relations, vol. ii., p. 401, as follows:

"I am assured that our affairs shall be taken into consideration as soon as the new cabinet is settled; and I am not without hopes that they may be satisfactorily adjusted. Having caused it to be understood that we should not consent to pay more than ten hundred thousand pounds in lieu of what might be awarded under the sixth article, I shall await a decision upon this offer."

By the convention of 1802, negotiated by King and Lord Hawkesbury, the sum of £600,000 was designated as the amount to be paid by the United States to Great Britain for

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debts contracted prior to the treaty of peace of 1783.—I am, very respectfully yours,

J. S. REEVES.

WASHINGTON, D. C., April 14, 1896.

PIDGIN SPANISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the interesting remarks of your correspondent in the *Nation* for January 30, regarding "Pidgin English," and in view of the ever increasing number of Spanish-American stories contained in our current literature, perhaps you will let me remark that the average Spanish quotation, with its corresponding translation, bears much the same relation to Castilian as "Ralphese" to "Pidgin English." Thus, in the March number of *Harper's Magazine*, the writer of the paper on "Arcadian Bee-Ranching" refers to the musical names of the California ranches, and translates some of them for the benefit of its readers. He writes "Las Posas" for "Los Posos" (meaning 'The Wells'), and translates "Las Chupa-Rosas" "Humming-Birds' Nest," when every one familiar with Spanish America knows that "chupa rosa" (literally, rose-sucker) is the vulgar Spanish-American for humming-bird, and in Castilian the poetic "colibri" is the exact equivalent.

In the same magazine are some remarks on the obscurity of the etymology of the word "gringo." This word was first applied to the soldiers of the American army invading Mexico in 1847, when the then popular song "Green grow the rushes, oh" was in vogue and was sung on the march. The two first syllables plainly show the origin of the word, which, curiously enough, appears to have originated in the same manner along the Pacific Coast from the singing of the same popular air by British sailors. I have trustworthy evidence of the word having been adopted in Peru in reference to them about the same period. Nowadays it is applied indiscriminately to all English-speaking people, much in the same manner as "gavacho" is to the French and "gachupin" to the Spanish by the Mexicans.—Yours truly,

EL BUITRE GRYNGO.

TOPIA, DURANGO, MEXICO, April 5, 1896.

P. S.—You may like to know that your views on the Anglo-Venezuelan question are very much appreciated by well-informed Mexicans, and have caused a great deal of favorable comment.

Notes.

FURTHER announcements by Macmillan & Co. are 'The Interpretation of Literature,' by W. H. Crashaw; 'The Italic Dialects,' by Prof. R. Seymour Conway; and 'London Burial-Grounds,' ancient and modern.

Messrs. Scribner have now become, by purchase and arrangement, proprietors and American publishers of all the works of Robert Louis Stevenson, including the posthumous.

The Star Publishing Co., Chicago, will soon publish 'Camp-Fire Stories,' by Col. Edward Anderson, profusely illustrated.

E. W. Moes, assistant librarian of the University of Amsterdam, is about to bring out in parts, through C. L. van Langenhuysen (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), a work on the local printers and publishers of the 16th century ('De Amsterdamsche Boekdrukkers en Uitgevers in de zestiende eeuw'), a chapter in the history of early printing as yet unwritten. Numerous facsimiles of marks, colophons, etc., will enhance the bibliographical and national value of this publication.

The forty-sixth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) all but disposes of the letter P. Priestley and Pope offer more of interest than any other names in the section that extends from Pocock to Puckering. Quite exceptionally, if we remember, the Birmingham philosopher is allotted to two hands, his biography proper being followed by an estimate of him as a scientist. Leslie Stephen might have been expected to be one of these colaborers, but he has reserved himself for the poets Pope and Praed. The former he biographizes in his best manner through eighteen pages, with a success for which he himself supplies the praise when he says, "There is, in fact, no more difficult subject for biography, especially in a compressed form." He makes the happy observation that "probably the nearest parallel to the combination [in Pope of a kindly disposition with seeming malignity due to unfortunate conditions acting upon a sensitive nature] is to be found in his contemporary, Voltaire." The notice of Praed is much shorter, and reminds us that his prænomen points to a relationship with the New England Winthrops, and that the first edition of his poems was published in America by R. W. Griswold. Another significant sketch is that of the Greek scholar Porson, which is readable but cannot be censured for compression in the purely personal and anecdotic part of it.

The eight-volume edition of Poe's Works, bearing the English imprint of J. Shiells & Co., and the American of J. B. Lippincott Co., is without note or comment of any kind, biographical introduction, or chronological indication, or variant reading. It therefore does not properly compete with the Woodberry-Stedman edition just concluded, nor is it as beautifully made. The volumes are, nevertheless, both handy and well printed, and are embellished with twenty-four tasteful and effective designs (chiefly by F. C. Tilney) in photogravure, including a view of Poe's house at Fordham, his portrait, and those of Henry Cockton, Hawthorne, and Mrs. Browning. There may yet be other editions of Poe, but the public seems now to be sufficiently supplied for a long time to come.

The enduring popularity of Symonds's translation of Benvenuto Cellini's Autobiography is evinced by the issue of a fourth edition (Charles Scribner's Sons). This edition, like the third, is in one volume, which, in spite of its more than five hundred pages, is not very cumbrous to hold, while the print is handsome and legible. The only thing we find to object to is the inadequate illustration. The cuts are small and confused, Cellini's elaborate ornament and complicated grouping of figures being often nearly indecipherable, while the red bronzing of the ink does not add to their clearness. Cellini's known works are not numerous, and could be completely illustrated at no great cost; but half the number of drawings here given, if printed on as large a scale as the page would allow, and in black, would be preferable to the whole number as we have them.

The Loudon Virginia Rangers were "scouts" during the civil war, employed by the national Government along the Potomac. They had lively experiences, being often matched against Mosby's Partisans on the Confederate side. The history of the battalion is told by Briscoe Goodhart of Company A, and published by McGill & Wallace, Washington, D. C. Besides the personal interest it will have for the members of the companies and their friends, it gives some instructive views of the petty warfare of raids and reconnoissances.

The "other side" is presented in 'Mosby's Rangers,' by James J. Williamson, of the Confederate Company A, a book of larger size and of greater historical pretensions (New York: Ralph B. Kenyon). A comparison of the two volumes shows how natural it is for each side to exaggerate its successes and slur its defeats. As they often describe the same skirmishes from opposite standpoints, the amusement is heightened by taking them together. It is a pity that the author of 'Mosby's Rangers' had not given at least a chapter to a frank history of the law under which they were organized, and to their actual practice of scattering after a raid and pretending to be peaceful farmers till called together again by preconcerted signal. He protests against calling them guerillas, but something more than a protest is needed when the law shows that they were irregular, and practically irresponsible, not on the pay-roll nor acting under definite orders, authorized to plunder and to keep the profits of their raids. What all this leads to, the history of war plainly tells. On the representation of the higher military officers the Confederate Government, at the beginning of 1864, disbanded all such organizations but Mosby's, and Virginia would doubtless have suffered less if his also had been suppressed.

Prof. W. M. Flinders Petrie, the Egyptian explorer and archæologist, has recently again put English readers under a debt of obligation by editing two volumes of translations of 'Egyptian Tales' (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.). They date all the way from the fourth to the nineteenth dynasty, and yet the collection does not by any means exhaust the folk-lore of this ancient people. The service of Petrie is, however, only comparative, since all the tales thus rendered have been in print for some years in an excellent French translation, Maspero's 'Contes Populaires.' In reading the smooth version given by Prof. Petrie, the reader might suppose that no involved questions of grammar and vocabulary are presented by the original; but such is by no means the case, and many of the renderings are no more than shrewd guesses. The original matter of the present volumes must be sought in the introductions and notes, and here the editor has rendered a more conspicuous service than elsewhere. The tales present material valuable from the point of view of both literature and folk-lore. They throw light upon many questions of mythology, every-day life, and the current conceptions of the times, and they deserve also the attention of students of the Egyptian religion. In them a natural progression is observable, from marvels and tales of wonders and of strange lands to novels of adventure and delineations of character.

The number of persons in this country who will be interested in a translation, from the Arabic, of an account of 'The Churches and Monasteries of Egypt and some Surrounding Countries' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), attributed to Abu Salih, the Armenian, is probably small. The book has required the expenditure of much erudition, and is a storehouse of quaint information for students of the history of Christian Egypt. The translation and many of the notes represent the labor of Mr. Basil T. A. Evetts of Trinity College, Oxford, and formerly of the British Museum. He has also had the assistance of other scholars, such as Alfred J. Butler, F.S.A.,

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whose work on the 'Ancient Coptic Churches of Egypt' is our latest and best authority. The book is an illustration of the progress of research and of the increase of the resources of scholarship for which the present generation is noted. The original has been known for a long time, but has only now been put to use.

In 'A Dictionary of the Names of Minerals, including their History and Etymology,' by Albert Huntington Chester, Professor of Mineralogy in Rutgers College (New York: John Wiley & Sons), we have for nearly 5,000 names of minerals the original source and name of the giver, when possible; the etymology of each name; and a brief description of the mineral to which the name applies, for help in identification. In the nomenclature of minerals, fancy has been called into play perhaps more than in any other branch of science. As the author says: "We sometimes find as the reason for a name the simple idea of distinguishing the thing itself; but this is not the common reason. Names have been given to commemorate battle-fields, to sneer at the work of earlier investigators, and as a tribute to feminine loveliness. In short, the whole round of human passions has been gone over in the manufacture of these words, which are purely scientific in their uses, and for the making of which scientific methods might well have been employed." In addition to its general interest from the philological side, the book will be of great value to mineralogists, and save them much mental wear in struggling with half-forgotten roots and distorted or trivial meanings.

'The Water Supply of the City of New York, 1858-1895,' by Edward Wegmann, C.E. (John Wiley & Sons), contains somewhat more than 300 quarto pages and about one hundred and fifty plates, besides half that number of figures in the text. It is one of those valuable compilations which every citizen of New York who concerns himself with the growth and development of his city, and every engineer who is interested in water supply, may find of interest and of use. Moreover, it combines the historical and statistical information interesting to a layman with detailed descriptions, estimates, and illustrations which are of real value to the engineer. It begins with an account of the various systems and projects which preceded the first construction of the Croton aqueduct; the most prominent system being that of the Manhattan Company, and the most amusing project being a proposed adaptation of the system used on the Schuylkill at Philadelphia, by building a dam across the Hudson River near the foot of Christopher Street, the estimated cost of the dam being about one-sixth of what has lately been the estimated cost of a bridge pier near the middle of that river. Then comes an account of the construction of the old Croton aqueduct, and two chapters devoted to the work done after the completion of the aqueduct proper, first by the Croton Aqueduct Department and then by the Department of Public Works. There follow an account of the new Croton aqueduct, and a description of the Croton watershed and of the reservoirs which have been or are to be built to provide adequate storage capacity. The book proceeds from an exceedingly competent hydraulic engineer, and has evidently been carefully prepared by a master. The chief criticism that one would offer is, that the execution of the numerous plates is evidently decidedly inferior to the execution of the drawings from which they were made.

All who have felt the interest and charm of the great scholar and writer that was James Darmesteter will be glad to know that a new volume of his essays has been collected by a loving hand, and is just now published: 'Nouvelles Études Anglaises. Avec avant-propos de Mme. Mary James Darmesteter' (Paris: Calmann Lévy). The first of these ten studies tells the story of the different steps by which the reputation of Joan of Arc has risen in England from that of an abandoned sorceress to that of a virgin and martyr. Other essays regard the life and letters of George Eliot; the works of Wordsworth and of Oliver Madox Brown; the political songs of Ireland; the poems of Miss Mary Robinson (his wife); and various Indian matters. These valuable studies have been hitherto buried in old reviews and magazines, and have been hard to come by; they are all the more welcome now on this account. The new style of Mme. Darmesteter may be noted; it is perhaps a fresh tribute to a deeply cherished memory.

Volume vi. of the *Oeuvres Complètes* of Huygens, which was received by subscribers in this country early in the present year, well maintains the high standard of the earlier volumes. Two more will be required to complete the correspondence, which is advanced in this beautiful quarto only from 1666 to 1669, the period of the early residence in Paris. But if the movement is slow, it embraces the entire thought of the time. Some indication of all the great interests, and something from the hand of nearly all the great names, of the middle of the 17th century will be found in these volumes. Bits of gossip, natural portents, the flight of spiders, the case of the man who seemed to carry his X-rays about with him so that he could see through people's clothing, find place beside a discussion of the unity of God, of the nature of truth, of the doctrine of probabilities, or of a universal language. Huygens's supreme preoccupations at this time—optics, astronomy, and horology—of course occupy much space. The Scientific Society of Holland, which is responsible for the editing, may well be congratulated that it has been able to secure committees competent to carry out such a monumental undertaking. The indexes are especially complete, occupying about sixty pages: a chronological index; an alphabetical list both of writers and of correspondents; an alphabetical list of persons mentioned; a list of works cited; and, finally, an index of subjects, prepared with evident care and unusually complete.

Recent folios of the Geologic Atlas of the United States continue to furnish welcome additions to the fund of geological, geographical, and economical information, useful in so many applications. Locally of great value to the people within the limits of their several areas, the folios are of broader value in teaching, inasmuch as they supply, in a measure of detail never before attempted generally for the whole country, a body of first-hand facts upon which a sound superstructure of generalization may be reared. The several Tennessee sheets portray the different features of the Cumberland plateau and its bordering lower lands. The sheets for the slope of the Sierra and the plain of middle California vie with the transcontinental railroads in bringing the Pacific States near to us on this side of the country. Additional sheets for various parts of the country are in course of publication.

The latest report of the Connecticut Board of Education reveals the actual condition of a number of the public schools in that State, which is certainly such as must make conscientious educators grieve. Poverty and isolation appear in the pictures of the little frame schoolhouses, as well as in the answers given by teachers to various elementary questions on school methods, and in the uniformly high percentage of pupils' failure to answer easy questions correctly. The candor and sympathetic quality of the report give assurance that reform and improvement will result from it. One sentence of practical import deserves quotation from a chapter on women's voting: "Men are elected to school offices for a variety of reasons, but women always because they are qualified."

The current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. x., part 2) are unusually rich in papers of permanent value. Prof. Egbert C. Smyth returns to the subject of Jonathan Edwards and his early writings, printing several of the latter, with specimen facsimiles of the MS., and establishing Edwards's claim to a high rank among the world's precocious intellects even in a scientific direction. Nathaniel Paine's list of early American imprints in the Society's library prior to 1701 is supplementary to Dr. Green's similar list for the Massachusetts Historical Society's library, to the extent of non-duplicates. Volumes common to both libraries are chronologically named without repeating Dr. Green's bibliographical descriptions. Justin Winsor contributes a convenient summary of the Literature of Witchcraft in New England. The battle of Bunker Hill is reviewed from a strategic standpoint by Charles Francis Adams.

The solid foothold of the *American Historical Review* (Macmillan) is manifest in the April number. Every one of the six leading papers invites careful reading. Most curious is Wilbur H. Siebert's "Light on the Underground Railway," a report of progress in a study yet to be given historical shape and completeness; and the map accompanying it, with red route-lines of the fugitives from Southern bondage, is also provisional. Virginia is involved in Justin Winsor's "Virginia and the Quebec Bill," in Prof. William P. Trent's "Case of Josiah Phillips," and James Ford Rhodes's terse and weighty judgment on the first six weeks of McClellan's Peninsular campaign. Charles Francis Adams adds an ornament or two to his study of the battle of Bunker Hill described above. Melville M. Bigelow, the well-known legal writer, begins an interesting translation, with annotations, of several Bohun wills and inventories. Finally, Prof. H. Morse Stephens estimates some recent memoirs of the French Directory. Quite the most extended and important review is that of Senator Sherman's Memoirs by Edward L. Pierce, a capital performance, just and moderate, but ending in a prophecy, already shaken, that this political trimmer would (on his own word) be found among the opponents of Cuban annexation. We must notice also a list of New England town records (of Massachusetts chiefly), and an account of the Barton Historical Collection in Detroit, accessible to students.

In the *Green Bag* (Boston) for April the Hon. Walter Clark records two instances of judicial burnings alive in North Carolina of slaves convicted of murder "without the solemnity of jury," as the Act of 1741, not repealed till 1793, read. Burning was not prescribed in the law, but the mode of punishment was left to the discretion of the two or more justices of the peace and the "four freeholders (*who should also be owners of slaves*)" empowered to form a court. After 1793 a slave could be tried by a jury of freeholders—whether slaveholders or not is not stated.

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We have already, on occasion of their photogravure reproduction of Stuart's head of Washington, noticed the series of American celebrities undertaken by A. W. Elson & Co., Boston. This auspicious beginning has since been followed up, and two fresh remarque proofs, of Marshall and of Hamilton, have just come to us from the above firm (New York: Knoedler). The Marshall is after a portrait from life by Inman, painted in 1831 for the Philadelphia bar, and now owned by the Law Association of that city. It has become familiar through engravings, but a better reproduction was still possible, and we have it here on a plate 12x15, bearing what relation to the scale of the original canvas we are not informed. The Hamilton is a copy of the original by Trumbull, now in the Jay house at Katonah, N. Y., which is thought to have been painted in 1792. The plate in this instance is about 16x20, and the scale larger than the Marshall. Both these prints are excellent specimens of the skill of the photogravurists who offer them for the satisfaction of amateurs, and with a laudable aim to secure them a place on the walls of schools, through the wise liberality of boards of education or by private gift—for they properly command a good price.

On April 24 a meeting will be held at the Columbian University, Washington, for the sole purpose of organizing a Southern Historical Association. Dr. J. L. M. Curry heads the call, which is signed also by Postmaster-General Wilson, Gen. Wade Hampton, Gen. G. W. C. Lee, Prof. Woodrow Wilson, G. Brown Goode, Prof. J. Randolph Tucker, Prof. Wm. Hand Browne, Col. Richard M. Johnston, Philip A. Bruce, Walter H. Page, Stephen B. Weeks, Prof. W. Gordon McCabe, Prof. W. M. Baskerville, and many other well-known and representative names. Miss Louise Manly, of Judson Female Institute, Ala., alone represents her sex in this list.

—Mr. Simon G. Croswell contributes to the *Harvard Law Review* for April an extremely suggestive paper on the development of the law concerning the use of electricity on highways. He confines himself mainly to an examination of the conflicting claims of telephone and trolley lines. Both these lines in the first place made use of the ground for the return current, and to a considerable extent still do so. The discharge from the trolley lines, however, is so powerful as to be mischievous. It passes along the gas and water-pipes into houses, reaches the telephone-discharging wires, and passes into the telephones and through them to the central exchange. This of course produces all sorts of undesired sounds and makes conversation unintelligible. There is also trouble from induction when the trolley wires are near to and parallel with those of the telephone. The telephone companies, being first in possession of the highways, brought suit against the trolley lines, endeavoring to compel them to discharge the electric current in some way which should not interfere with existing uses, *e. g.*, by means of metallic circuits for the return current. The same device, however, would relieve the telephones from most of their trouble, and in some cases the courts inclined to hold that whichever party could abate the nuisance at least expense should be required to do so.

—In other cases, however, the maxim, *Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure*, was regarded as controlling. The telephone companies were where they were by right, and it seemed reasonable that later occupants should be made to respect this right. The other maxim, *Sic utere tuo ut alienum non lædas*, was also invoked by the telephone companies against the trolley lines. They said that these lines could exercise their franchises without damaging other interests if they chose to take the trouble to do so, and that it was only equitable that they should be required to respect existing rights. But all this reasoning, plausible as it seemed, was suddenly brushed aside by the application of another principle. The trolley lines took the position that the primary use of the highways is for public travel, and that all other uses must be subordinate to this. The telephone, therefore, is only a licensed interloper, and the trolley as a common carrier need not regard such dubious rights as those of mere purveyors of intelligence. The telephone and telegraph lines therefore take their franchises on highways subject to the right of travel, and so the highest courts seem now to hold. But this principle in its turn may require modification. The iron pipes used for drains, for water, for gas, etc., which are laid under the highways, have no more to do with public travel than the telephone wires. May the trolley lines therefore discharge their electric current into the ground to the destruction of these pipes, without being called to account? Evidently the doctrine that the highway is primarily for travel must be modified so as to recognize the fact that what is secondary is not therefore to be ignored. *Qui posterior est tempore, potior aliquando jure sit.*

—An important unpublished document on the war of 1870 has just appeared in Germany, and is translated in the current number of the *Revue des Revues*. This document is an extract from the journal of Count Frankenberg, who, during the time that intervened between the battles around Orleans and the capitulation of Paris, played an important part, not only as an officer of rank in the Prussian service, but also, and especially, as an intermediary between Mgr. Dupanloup and Count Bismarck. On the 14th of October, 1870, he called on the Bishop of Orleans to arrange with him some details of hospital service, when the Bishop took occasion to say that he did not share the extreme tendencies or the stubborn animosity of the Government. In the evening of the same day, he returned the visit of Count Frankenberg and opened himself freely to him on the question of peace. Peace must be made, he said, without delay, or everything would fall into confusion. He himself had been urged to take the first steps, but this he could not do because Orleans was in German hands. Only one Frenchman could do it, and that was his old friend Thiers. The Bishop had read Bismarck's dispatch on the interview with Jules Favre at Ferrières, and did not think the propositions made to France extravagant or out of proportion to the situation. France must resign herself to a cession of territory, he said, and, after peace was made, she could be saved only by the return to power of the legitimate dynasty. Prussia survived Jena only because of the Hohenzollerns; and Austria was not broken up after Koeniggraetz solely because she had the Hapsburgs to rely upon. The situation in France was more difficult on account of the schism in the legitimate family, and the Bishop urged the good offices of King William to heal the breach. The Count de Chambord ought to be King, and, as he had no child, to adopt the Count de Paris as his successor and heir. "I do not express in this," the Bishop said, "my own personal opinion only; the whole French episcopate is with me." These advances of Mgr. Dupanloup were at once laid before the King of Prussia, the Crown Prince, and Count Bismarck. All three expressed their satisfaction at the peaceful intentions of the Bishop of Orleans, and declared that they in no wise desired the reëstablishment of the Empire, but would be ready to treat with the one who should offer them the best terms and the most satisfactory warrant of peace. Safe-conduct, they promised, should be given to the friend whom Mgr. Dupanloup desired to send to M. Thiers. At this point the extract from the journal of Count Frankenberg ends.

—The reverse side to the glorious pomp and circumstance of war is graphically shown in 'With an Ambulance during the Franco-German War,' by Charles E. Ryan (Scribners). The author was a young medical student in Dublin when the great war broke out in 1870, and being, like most Irishmen, an ardent admirer of France, he volunteered to use such medical and surgical knowledge as he had acquired for the assistance of the French wounded. After some difficulty he got an appointment with the Anglo-American Ambulance and proceeded with it to Sedan, where he had his first experience in ambulance work. The greater number of the doctors with whom he served had learned their business as army surgeons upon the Confederate side during the American civil war. Their skill, kindness, courage, and amiability seem to have made a great impression upon the young Irish medical student, who never mentions the names of his colleagues without words of admiration and respect. The relation given of the disaster of Sedan fully confirms in its piteous details the vivid narrative of Zola in 'La Débâcle,' which, in his preface, Dr. Ryan greatly lauds, stating that "those who were eye-witnesses of Sedan can add little to his description." After tending as many as possible of the wounded of both armies with faithful and tireless care at Sedan, the Anglo-American Ambulance endeavored without success to make its way to Paris, and thereupon offered its services to the Germans, and was sent to Orleans, where, as at Sedan, it tended the wounded on both sides during the first German occupation, the brief French occupation after the battle of Coulmiers, and the second German occupation of the city of Jeanne Darc. In a simple and natural style Dr. Ryan describes the work of the international ambulance among the wounded, giving a graphic picture of the terrible sufferings inflicted on the unfortunate victims of modern military operations. Yet his volume is no mere gruesome tale of human suffering.

—The third volume of Mr. J. H. Wylie's 'History of England under Henry the Fourth' (Longmans) covers the years from 1407 to 1410. It exhibits the same merits and defects as its predecessors. Evidence of untiring industry is given upon every page; the references to authorities used are so full that often more than half the page is composed of footnotes; the primary authorities for the period have been carefully examined, and the very adjectives used in the description of an historical character's personal appearance are vouched for by quotations from contemporary documents; careful impartiality is everywhere observed, and the reader is enabled to draw a conclusion differing from the author's from the material the author himself supplies; and there is a judicious absence of irritating moral and philosophical comments. On the other hand, the defects that were conspicuous in Mr. Wylie's earlier volumes are again perceptible.

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The old tendency to wander from the subject in hand is shown in irritating fashion, and the book has become not a mere history of England during the reign of Henry of Bolingbroke, but a history of the reign of that king with side glances at other countries and at anything else that happens to occur to the author at the moment of writing. This digressive habit is by no means offensive to the reader. Indeed, the most interesting chapters are digressions, as, for instance, chapter lxxv. in the present volume, dealing with Gilds and Misteries, as Mr. Wylie spells the better known words guilds and mysteries, and chapter lxxxiv., on Oxford. It is by means of such digressions that his book has grown to its present size, for neither the accessible material nor the importance of the reign of Henry IV. could in any other fashion have been stretched to such an extent. It is possible to recognize the real learning of Mr. Wylie, to be grateful to him for his industry, and to enjoy his digressions, while deprecating a system of writing history which produces an *omnium-gatherum* of miscellaneous information in the place of a carefully constructed account of the political, economic, and social tendencies of a definite historical period.

NICOLL'S LITERARY ANECDOTES.

Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century: Contributions towards a Literary History of the Period. Edited by W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., LL.D., and Thomas J. Wise. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

THE first volume of a series which seeks to do for the literary history of the nineteenth century what Nichols's 'Literary Anecdotes of the Eighteenth Century' has done for its age, deserves more than a casual notice. Dr. Nicoll and Mr. Wise have thus in the preface expressed their general aims:

"The editors hope to provide . . . a considerable amount of fresh matter, illustrating the life and work of British authors in the nineteenth century. To a large extent they rely upon manuscript material, but use will be made of practically inaccessible texts and of fugitive writings. While leading authors will receive due attention, much space will be devoted to the less known writers of the period. It is intended to supply biographies, letters hitherto unpublished, additions from manuscript sources to published works, together with a series of full bibliographies of the writings of the greater authors. Every precaution has been taken to avoid the infringement of copyright, and the editors hope that they will be forgiven any involuntary transgression."

This is a terse yet comprehensive account of the scheme, and the contents of the first volume fall readily under one or other of the heads indicated. To select a single example from each class, we have under "Manuscript Material" more letters from Shelley to Leigh Hunt; under "Practically Inaccessible Texts" Thomas Wade's 'Helena'; under "Fugitive Writings," Hawthorne's "Uttoxeter"; and under "Bibliographies of the Writings of the Greater Authors," 267 pages of "Materials for a Bibliography of the Writings in Prose and Verse of Robert Browning." The promise that "much space will be devoted to the less-known writers of the period" is also amply fulfilled. This is keeping close to the path of Nichols, for not all Mr. Bowyer's friends, nor even Mr. Bowyer himself, are universally celebrated. Thomas Wade, Richard Henry (Hengist) Horne, and Charles Wells are among the obscurer men whose lives and writings are now more fully disclosed.

The frontispiece is an admirable portrait of William Blake, after Phillips's original sketch. The plate used for the reproduction was etched by William Bell Scott. "This work is one of the strongest and most characteristic of Scott's etchings, which, for purposes such as the present, possesses the unusual value of being done on steel with the burin and not on copper with the point. Save through a few proofs circulated in Scott's lifetime, the plate is totally unknown." Blake wears his most prophetic aspect and looks every inch a man of genius, with a touch of that madness to which his great wits were near allied. One can almost hear him say:

"Bring me my bow of burning gold,
Bring me my arrows of desire,
Bring me my spear: O clouds, unfold,
Bring me my chariot of fire."

The "Anecdotes" begin with a series of unpublished documents which furnish fresh information concerning Blake's trial for treason in 1803. Scofield's deposition against Blake comes first, then Blake's memorandum in refutation, and thirdly the speech of Blake's lawyer, Counsellor Rose. Blake's trial has a distinct historical value apart from being a critical incident in the life of a most distinguished man. The mere fact that a public prosecutor could be found to proceed with a grave charge on the trumpery evidence which was adduced, shows that during the period of the Napoleonic wars the rage for suppressing *Majestätsbeleidigung* was even greater in England than it now is in Germany.

Tennyson is not directly taken up in this volume, but two early estimates of him are given—one by Arthur Hallam, the other by Mrs. Browning. Hallam's unfailing advocacy of his friend appears in two letters to Leigh Hunt. The first, written in 1831, is addressed to the editor of the *Tatler*. The second is above a year later in date and more familiar in style. Neither letter contains any views that are not elaborately expressed in Hallam's Essay on the Lyrical Poems of Alfred Tennyson which Mr. Le Gallienne has already published. The 1832 letter, however, bears clear testimony to the devotion of Hallam's set, the original band of "Apostles," to Shelley. "While at Cambridge I partook largely in the enthusiasm which animated many of my contemporaries, and indeed formed us into a sort of sect in behalf of his character and genius." Elizabeth Barrett's "Opinion," published in 1844, was doubtless based largely on the 1842 volume of Tennyson's poems. We do not consider it by any means so piquant as Mrs. Gaskell's tribute in 'Cranford,' but it deserves to be reprinted. It originally appeared in 'A New Spirit of the Age,' two volumes of critical essays in which Miss Barrett collaborated with Horne. The "Opinion" is printed from a manuscript in Mr. Buxton Forman's collection, which shows just how Horne cut up Miss Barrett's paper and interpolated "copy" of his own. The arrangement was fair enough, for they were avowedly working together and he had authority to use her contributions as he chose.

Three minor poets who receive generous recognition in this volume are Horne, Wade, and Wells. A biographical account of each is furnished by Mr. H. Buxton Forman, upon whose pen and library the editors have drawn largely. His sketch of Horne's life and character is one of the freshest and best things in the book. The curious know Horne's farthing epic "Orion," but few, in this country at least, are familiar with his exciting career and vigorous personality. He is like the worthies we run across in the publications of the Hakluyt Society. We do not judge such a man by what he writes, but by what he is. Horne was not dependent upon Europe for amusement and enjoyment. He would have made his cycle of Cathay a very lively term of existence. From 1833 to 1851 he was a voluminous writer on a great variety of subjects, sometimes striking a style in verse that called forth praise from Roden Noel and even from Browning. His ballad of "Delora" is now first printed in its original form, with marginal notes in the manner of the "Ancient Mariner." It is somewhat spasmodic for the taste of the present generation, and would not be apt just now to run through many editions by itself. However, if we are to have agony we can stand it better from a man who could at the age of eighty swing dumb-bells weighing fifty pounds, than from a poor anæmic creature who never had a passion in his life. Horne once beat a shark in a race, once helped the captain and mates of a timber-ship put down a mutiny, and once won a prize claret bottle "for grace and agility displayed in swimming when thrown over the side of a ship, bound hand and foot." Here are some of his experiences in America. He served in the Mexican expedition of 1825:

"was at the siege of Vera Cruz and the taking of San Juan Ulloa, was taken prisoner and narrowly escaped being shot as such, got away, and, though he knew little of Spanish and less of surgery, was employed in translating Spanish dispatches, etc., and filled the post of surgeon in the cock-pit. As boarding officer he took several prizes, and finished with the yellow fever, his only illness save his last. Quit of the fever, and defrauded of his prize-money, he left the Mexican service, cruised off the Floridas, landed at New York, ascended the Erie Canal, visited several Indian tribes, broke two of his ribs at Niagara Falls, lost all his money there at billiards, and worked his passage *up* [*sic*] the St. Lawrence."

Upon the discovery of gold in Australia he left England again and became an extremely useful magistrate in the gold fields. Surely one ought not to grudge Horne his civil-list pension of £50 nor his occasional rants in "Delora."

A fresh opportunity is afforded Wade and Wells to win a place for themselves in the esteem of lovers of poetry. Next to creating a new poet of consequence, nothing could please lovers of poetry so well as the discovery of a true bard neglected by the contemporaries of Wordsworth in his age, and of Tennyson and Browning in their youth. Unfortunately, the chance of vindicating the claims of men like Wade and Wells is but indifferent. The present century is not open to the reproach of having turned a deaf ear to the truly great. Its excess has been on the side of running to fads. Wade and Wells undoubtedly possess enough good qualities to preserve their work from being called rubbish, but they will always remain caviare to the general. We cannot regret this particularly, because there is so much poetry of a high class to be read in the various tongues of the modern world that time devoted to the minor poets must be stolen from the time which should be devoted to their betters. Mr. Forman complains that, "with the sole exception of Thomas Lovell Beddoes, no nineteenth-century English poet whose merit equals that of Thomas Wade has been so liberally neglected," and accuses Mr. Stedman of "missing a good opportunity of telling the truth about this nearly lost poet." For our own part we cannot blame Mr. Stedman for his cursory mention of Wade in "Victorian Poets." A writer so completely under the influence of Shelley and Keats is an awkward person for erection into a literary cult. The

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Fifty Sonnets of Wade, many published for the first time, "The Contest of Death and Love," and "Helena," both of which have been published but are extremely rare, may, however, succeed in accomplishing this wonder. At any rate they are worth printing.

The "Dramatic Scene" of Charles Wells is taken from "Joseph and his Brethren," and is really an interpolation "regarding the relative merits of Nile-side polytheism and Hebrew monotheism." The piece contains fine lines, but is marred by a rhetoric which is striving to become poetry, and by a weakness for sententious utterances such as:

"What thou hast said against our deities
I leave between our deities and thee:
Their proper honour is their proper cause,"

and

"The God of justice is the God of love,
And chastisement is love where sin is death."

The ten letters of Shelley to which we now come cover the years 1813-1822, and are full of warm affection for his correspondent, Leigh Hunt. The editors insist upon their value for the interpretation of Shelley's character, by their emphasis of the great change which came over him in 1814, the year when he threw in with Mary Godwin. The one letter prior to 1814 shows Shelley in the thick of his abstract atheistical speculations. The rest show him merged in the palpitating facts of life, awake to the concerns of his friends and instinct with genius. "When once that point in the Shelley chronology [1814] is reached, there is no record of retrogression; variety—yes, and progress; but never any more letters, however trifling or matter-of-fact the subject, behind which it is possible not to see this particular personality—intellect, emotions, imagination, all alive, and creating fresh combinations of language and thought." This naturally raises the question of Shelley's letters versus his poetry—the question of Matthew Arnold's paradox that Shelley's prose will outlive his verse. Certainly there is nothing in the letters now published to support such a view. They are spontaneous, unaffected, and fresh from the heart, but their subjects are not of perennial moment. A criticism of Michael Angelo might be held to furnish an exception. For the rest, the chronic money difficulties of Hunt, and Shelley's assistance, the circumstances under which the "Hymn to Intellectual Beauty" was published, the relations of Byron, Shelley, and Hunt leading up to the publication of 'The Liberal: Verse and Prose from the South,' and the appearance of 'Frankenstein,' are the principal themes. We welcome the publication of new Shelley letters, but we must confess that, in our opinion, the editors have somewhat overestimated the value of their discovery.

The "Landor-Blessington Papers" show Landor in his most amiable mood. He lavishes articles upon Lady Blessington, redeeming her 'Book of Beauty' and her 'Keepsake' from inanity. His modesty will surprise those who remember "I strove with none, for none was worth my strife." In sending on a quarto sheet headed "Pleasure, Youth, and Age: An Allegory," he says: "I hope you will think it worthy of a place, not in the forthcoming but in the following Book of Beauty." We quite forget in the shower of compliments which he pays the fair editor that he ever threw his cook into a tulip-bed at Fiesole, replying to the remonstrances of his wife: "Well, my dear, I *am* sorry, if that will do you any good. If I had remembered that our best tulip-bed was under that window, I'd have flung the dog out of t'other." The story may be legendary, but no one could invent such a legend about the Blessington-Landor. His intimacy with the Countess extended from June of 1827 to the day of her death in 1849, and he could conclude a sketch of their friendship with the words: "Virtuous ladies, instead of censuring her faults, attempt to imitate her virtues. Believe that, if any excess may be run into, the excess of tenderness is quite as pardonable as that of malignity and rancour." The letters now published relate chiefly to Landor's contributions to the various annuals which Lady Blessington published in years when her income had become small, and she was forced to depend on her own energy for the funds which kept the salon at Gore House, Kensington, in existence. They fill up gaps in Madden's 'Life and Correspondence of the Countess of Blessington,' and are of considerable value to the lover of literary gossip. Besides letters, various minor papers and verses of Landor, which accompanied the letters, are set forth. An autobiographical note which Landor drew up for the Countess, and an extract from her diary concerning the first weeks of their acquaintance, are also included.

We must not altogether pass over Hawthorne's paper on Uttoxeter, which Dr. Nicoll and Mr. Wise have rescued from a file of the 'Keepsake.' Hawthorne himself introduced portions of it into his chapter on Lichfield and Uttoxeter in 'Our Old Home'; now we have it alone in its first form. Hawthorne never wrote more delightfully than on the subject of Johnson's penance and the market-place in which it was performed. The conclusion is an amusing little anti-climax. By an analogy drawn from his own experience, Hawthorne excuses the people of Uttoxeter from their failure to remember and be impressed by the one event that redeems their town from obscurity. We do not get much assistance from this essay about the pronunciation of the name. Hawthorne says it is called Yute-oxeter, but here he is hopelessly astray if the local researches of Dr. Birkbeck Hill are to be considered conclusive.

We have left ourselves no space to dilate on what in some respects is the most important portion of the volume, viz., the Bibliography of Browning's Writings. The following order of treatment is observed: I. Editiones Principes; II. Contributions to Periodical Literature; III. Published Letters; IV. An alphabetical list of poems with reference to the position of each in the various editions; V. Collected Editions; VI. Selections; VII. Complete volumes of Biography and Criticism; VIII. Browningiana. The whole bibliography would reflect credit on the most precise and laborious German, and will be indispensable to the systematic student of Browning. The notes added to the separate pieces under section iv. are most ample, useful, and entertaining. The section *Browningiana* is brought down to February, 1895.

The paper, type, and illustrations of this volume are all very beautiful, quite eclipsing old Nichols; while the numerous reproductions in facsimile of original holographs will give the book a special value in the eyes of the bibliophile and the collector of autographs. It would be too much to say that the material collected by the editors presents any great public character in a new light, yet much of it is of high interest and none of it is trivial. If the succeeding volumes of the series equal the first in merit, the "Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century" will become one of those works "without which no gentleman's library is complete."

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE UNIVERSITIES.—II.

The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages. By Hastings Rashdall, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of Hertford College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. 2 vols., 8vo, 560, 832 pp.

Much of Mr. Rashdall's space is very naturally devoted to the earliest typical universities, Salerno, Bologna, and Paris. Concerning the study of medicine at Salerno, the facts regarding which are very uncertain and the legends numerous, Mr. Rashdall is extremely cautious. He ascribes its origin jointly to the survival of Græco-Roman medicine in Southern Italy and to the fact that Salerno itself was a health-resort, sought because of the mildness of the climate and the neighboring mineral springs. Its importance continued for only two centuries, although its final suppression was effected by Napoleon as late as 1811. Mr. Rashdall takes pains to emphasize the fact that women were prominent as teachers and writers at Salerno when that institution was at the height of its prosperity.

The story of the universities at Bologna and at Paris is intensely interesting, for those institutions not only have maintained a continuous existence to this day, but are the veritable parents of universities. The existence of a university at Bologna is explained primarily by the uninterrupted existence of the Roman law and its continued study and exposition, despite invasion, decadence, and change, social and political. The Seven Liberal Arts included the study of law, which was made a part of rhetoric, sometimes of grammar as well. Mr. Rashdall plays havoc with the time-honored superstition that Irnerius was the first teacher of Roman law in mediæval Italy. He is able to prove not only that Roman law was studied at Pavia from at least the beginning of the 11th century, but also that the School of Law at Ravenna had kept alive the old traditions of Roman jurisprudence from a still earlier date. Irnerius, therefore, revived and forwarded legal studies, but did not found them. He did this at Bologna, whose earliest reputation as a School of Arts is put in the background by its later preëminence as a School of Law. Why Bologna was the seat of this revival, Mr. Rashdall explains thus:

"At Bologna—the point of junction between the Exarchate and the Lombard territory—these traditions [of Roman jurisprudence] came into contact with the new-born political life of the Lombard cities, and with that development both of professional and of scholastic law-studies which was one of the outcomes of the Lombard political activity. To a large extent the revival of legal science was common to all parts of Northern Italy. But in the Lombard cities the Roman law had to contend for supremacy in the schools as well as in the courts with a rival Lombard jurisprudence: it was not unnatural that the Roman law should achieve its decisive victory in the most Roman of the Lombard towns" (i.,108).

It is not possible to trace in detail Mr. Rashdall's thoroughly sane and well-balanced account of the University of Paris, the *alma mater* of the universities of Germany, and perhaps the most potent influence in building up a university out of the schools at Oxford. The key to the difference between the universities at Paris and at Bologna, and the explanation of the survival of the type of the former, are to be found in the power of the Chancellor and the right of the competent teacher to a license. The licensed teachers became, guild-fashion, the controlling power, and were the forerunners of all modern faculties and aca-

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demic boards. The subordinate facts connected with these fundamental principles Mr. Rashdall works out in great detail, and he throws abundant light on many problems hitherto dark. The famous Bull of Honorius III., which in 1219 prohibited the study of the civil law at the University of Paris, is explained by Mr. Rashdall as due, not to a dislike for legal studies, and a desire to suppress or limit them, but to an attempt to protect the faculty of theology, at one centre at least, from the ruinous competition of the popular and well-rewarded study of the law.

The story of the "Great Dispersion" of 1228-29 is capitally told, and is built up in part from documents that have not hitherto been used. It is plain that the smaller universities of France, especially those at Rheims, Angers, and Toulouse, as well as Oxford and Cambridge, received a marked stimulus from the advent of wandering masters and scholars who left Paris at this time. But, as Mr. Rashdall says, the University of Paris lived upon its misfortunes, and out of the disturbances created by the town-and-gown riot that led to the Great Dispersion came positive proof that a new force had arisen in Europe; for after two years the court and the citizens were glad enough to urge the return of the teachers and scholars, at any price, in order to check the failing prestige and to restore the commercial prosperity of Paris. From that time on, the development of the university was more orderly and less troubled.

As an Englishman, Mr. Rashdall is justified in giving more attention to the history of Oxford and Cambridge than is usual in the writings of Continental historians of education. To American students also these details are of much interest. The time-honored legend that Oxford owes its origin to Alfred the Great not only is dismissed as a myth (following Mr. James Parker), but is asserted to be an imaginary creation that first appeared in Camden's 'Britannia' in 1600, and was transferred from this, three years later, to Camden's edition of Asser's 'Annals.' The whole story—beginnings of which are found in Higden's 'Polychronicon'—with all its numerous and detailed appendages, "may now be abandoned," says Mr. Rashdall, "to students of comparative mythology and of the pathology of the human mind." Similarly, the "cobwebs with which academic patriotism has surrounded the growth of the University of Cambridge" are swept away, and the first appearance of that institution on the pages of history is traced to "the dispersion which followed upon the Oxford *suspendium clericorum* of 1209." But, the true beginnings being established, the story of the subsequent history of the great English universities is admirably told. It includes not only their constitutional development, but their relation to the church and to the public, their student life, and their academic customs. Many of these details, especially where they tend to explain existing survivals of older customs, are intensely interesting. For example, it will surprise many, even well-informed university men, to be told that until 1884 Cambridge University had on its statute-book a *jus natalium* that excused sons of noblemen from an examination and a year's residence.

In reference to the number of students enrolled at the mediæval universities Mr. Rashdall is very conservative. He points to the fact that at the larger universities of northern Europe no official record of students' names was kept, that matriculation books are available only for some of the smaller universities and for the later part of the period which is under examination, and that the estimates of university attendance which we possess rest exclusively upon a few *obiter dicta* of mediæval writers. Some of these large estimates are traced to the mediæval habit of exaggeration, and some to a direct attempt to support one side of some pending controversy. For example, the statement of Fitz Ralph, Bishop of Armagh, that there had once been 30,000 students at Oxford, is ascribed by Mr. Rashdall to the Bishop's anxiety to prove that the university was being depopulated in consequence of the kidnappings of the Friars, which made parents afraid to send their sons to Oxford. By examining a variety of evidence, Mr. Rashdall reaches the conclusion that the student population at Oxford could at no time have exceeded 3,000, and was probably always much below that figure. For Paris the highest possible attendance is put at 10,000, and probably no other university, except perhaps Bologna in the course of the thirteenth century, ever reached an attendance of 5,000.

It may perhaps be said, in criticism of Mr. Rashdall's work, that the reader would like to be given more generalizations, deductions, and applications of and from the immense collection of facts here recorded and sustained. The chapters on "The Place of the University of Paris in European History," "The Intellectual Revolution," "The Place of Oxford in Mediæval Thought," and "Student Life in the Middle Ages" are of this character, and well illustrate how interesting the whole subject may be made to the general reader. But we should be profoundly thankful to have put before us, in the English language, such a systematic presentation of the history and bibliography of the early universities as Mr. Rashdall has worked out. His collected and annotated material on all the universities, great and small, is a perfect mine of facts for the student of education and of mediæval history.

One of the main results of Mr. Rashdall's survey is, as he himself points out, to shatter a good many popular university traditions.

"The University of London, after being empowered by Royal Charter to do all things that could be done by any university, was legally advised that it could not grant degrees to women without a fresh charter, because no university had ever granted such degrees: we have seen that there were women doctors at Salerno. We have been told that the Mediæval University gave a religious education: we have seen that to the majority of the students it gave none. We have been told that a university must embrace all faculties: we have seen that many very famous mediæval universities did nothing of the kind. . . . We have been told that the collegiate system is peculiar to England: we have seen that colleges were found in nearly all universities, and that over a great part of Europe university teaching was more or less superseded by college teaching before the close of the mediæval period. We have been told that the great business of a university was considered to be liberal as distinct from professional education: we have seen that many universities were almost exclusively occupied with professional education. We have been assured, on the other hand, that the course in Arts was looked upon as a mere preparatory discipline for the higher faculties: we have seen that in the universities of northern Europe a majority of students never entered a higher faculty at all" (ii., 712, 713).

Another result is to make it clear that all these institutions were not cast in a common mould, but conformed to the national and social environments in which they sprang up. Yet amid all these differences the early universities had a common ideal, and that the highest educational ideal of the time. To degrade the term "university," therefore, as we do in the United States with our "Normal Universities," our "Business Universities," and our "Universities" that are but half-equipped secondary schools, is, as Mr. Rashdall justly says, to abuse the highest educational ideal that we find recorded in history.

It is impossible, within the limits of this review, to do more than touch upon the chief points of general interest in Mr. Rashdall's remarkable book. To say that it is indispensable to students of education and of the Middle Ages and a splendid example of scholarship and learning, is in no sense an over-statement.

Public Speaking and Debate: A Manual for Advocates and Agitators. By George Jacob Holyoake. Putnams.

MANY years ago Mr. Holyoake wrote a practical handbook on speaking and debate which had the success of being not only reprinted but pirated. This volume he has now rewritten, and in doing so has produced a manual which writers as well as speakers will find useful. It is not a systematic treatise—indeed, it is marked by a want of system—but is full of useful suggestion, illustration, and advice such as is often not to be met with in systematic treatises. No doubt the fundamental principles of the art of persuasion are the same to-day as in the time of Quintilian, but the materials with which the art deals and the weapons in its armory are by no means precisely the same. Pulpit eloquence, for instance, could not be practised until there were pulpits and congregations and a Christian faith. Had Massillon preached in the Coliseum to the Roman Senate, he would probably not have moved his audience either to repentance or to tears. If Antony were to endeavor to-day to rouse his auditors to avenge the assassination of Cæsar, he would need to remember that they had all read extras giving full details of the event. Public speakers go back to Cicero and Demosthenes for the great fundamental principles of rhetoric, as military men go back to Napoleon and Hannibal for those of strategy, not forgetting that neither Cicero nor Demosthenes ever spoke in the dread of the daily press, nor that Hannibal was unacquainted with transportation by rail, nor that Napoleon never saw a Maxim gun. For these reasons formal and systematic works on rhetoric need to be supplemented from time to time by manuals such as Mr. Holyoake's, designed to bring forcibly before the mind the practical questions which confront the speaker or debater of to-day.

At the same time a little more system would have been to the advantage even of such a volume. The reader is not made clearly to understand, for instance, that sharp lines of division separate the field, differentiating rhetoric which attempts persuasion simply from rhetoric which aims at victory, as in parliamentary debate; or from exhortation, the object of which is to arouse to action of some kind. A fervent sermon to the heathen, preached with genuine unction, has a different object in view from one on the coast defences, or one placing in nomination a Favorite Son; the failure of a speaker to notice such differences may empty the house for him.

Again, we miss a systematic analysis of the modes and figures of speech. While it is true that the rules of rhetoric teach us, as Butler says, only how to name our tools, a careful examination of the tools of the trade, and of the uses to which they can be put, will surely enable us to begin work with less risk of cutting our fingers. Irony is not by any means the only dangerous implement in the box. All

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figures of speech are edged tools, and accidents will happen to the beginner even if he merely mistakes an analogy for a resemblance, as the author seems to do (p. 209). The chapter on Figures of Speech is really confined to Metaphor and Simile, but, after all, we forgive its inadequacy in gratitude for having recalled to us the story of the young preacher who, having described a man without faith or hope as "the captain of a crewless vessel, upon a shoreless sea," exclaimed, almost inevitably, by way of peroration, "Happy would such a man be to bring his men to land."

The value of this book lies in its practical advice, a good deal of which will not be found anywhere else. "Writing for the Press" has nothing to do directly with speaking or debate, but every speaker or debater sooner or later has to make use of the press as a medium for communication with the public, and in this chapter he will find some golden rules, accompanied by perfectly clear explanation of the grounds on which they rest. It is the first impulse of any one who is misrepresented to resent, to deny, and to attack the person misrepresenting. The readiest means are furnished by the newspapers, which are only too glad, if the persons concerned are at all well known, to print communications on such subjects. But how few persons remember that the editor will also print the reply, and that he too has the final power of deciding when the controversy shall stop, and what view as to its merits the newspaper which has made it public shall express.

A controversy of this kind has usually an effect not dreamed of by the person who begins it—that of hugely delighting the editor who "opens his columns" to it, the people who read it, and especially the friends and acquaintances of the parties. So full of peril is this species of self-vindication that some eminent men think it best never to reply to any attack—but this course is not open to every one. If a public reply must be made, the golden rule for the person who desires to vindicate himself is to avoid doing what he is most strongly tempted to do—impute an evil motive of some sort to the person written about. "Even if he thinks he has been wilfully misrepresented by an adversary, a reporter, or by the editor, he had better not say so," first, because he can hardly ever be sure of it; second, because he can hardly ever prove it. The capacity for honest misapprehension and perversion is so diffused among mankind that there can hardly ever be any certainty that misrepresentation is wilful, and we may add as a final reason that an antagonist will have no difficulty in making the same charge in reply, while, owing to a universal human instinct unnecessary to analyze, there is nothing in the world that mankind at large enjoys so much as hearing persons of note call each other names and make mutual charges of villany.

In the same way the chapter on the "Theory of Epithets" contains much valuable advice, and brings out strongly the underlying principle of modern parliamentary debate—the assumption that all antagonism springs from honest difference of opinion, and therefore can be removed by argument. This assumption is not necessarily true. Interest, prejudice, passion, hatred, envy, and malice are often at the root of differences even with regard to points of constitutional law, and many an opinion is not founded on conviction, but is used as a mere weapon of attack. Nevertheless, it is the boast at once of the most civilized and the most successful forensic art to treat an adversary's opinions as error and not as produced by original sin. Mr. Holyoake points out that the best practical test of what are allowable epithets or imputations in debate is to ask, Should we consider this fair debate if applied to ourselves?—a test which is at once good morals and good sense.

In conclusion, it may comfort the few readers who do not feel themselves to be already accomplished orators, to find that Mr. Holyoake's study of the subject confirms the view, so often repeated and so often forgotten, that, no matter what the natural gifts of a speaker, the greatest oratory has been always the product of unflagging industry and laborious preparation.

Feudal England: Historical Studies of the XIth and XIIth Centuries. By J. H. Round. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

THIS book—in part reprinted from the *English Historical Review*, but in the main new—is one of the most important contributions to the knowledge of mediæval English conditions that have appeared of late years. For a decade or more after the appearance of Professor (now Bishop) Stubbs's first volume of 'Constitutional History,' the movement of thought in that field took the direction chiefly of the appropriation and popularization of his conclusions: but during the last ten years or so there has been a fresh impulse towards further investigation; and this further investigation has had the result, partly of securing greater precision, partly of undermining some not unimportant positions even of the great Bishop himself. In this work four scholars have preeminently distinguished themselves, and stand head and shoulders above all others—Mr. Seebohm, Prof. Vinogradoff, Prof. Maitland, and Mr. Round.

Mr. Round remarks, in more than one place, that while the task of the last generation of scholars was to interpret the "chroniclers," the task of the present is to supplement and correct that evidence by recourse to the "records"; and the remark is just. Not that the "records" were never consulted before: it was Palgrave who did most to make them accessible; and even Freeman made a good deal of use of the Domesday Book. But what is new is the effort, not to pick out mere illustrations or proofs for opinions otherwise formed, but to master the records as wholes, to determine their exact relations *inter se*, to analyze their contents, and to let the facts themselves spontaneously fall into significant order. And this result is what, in the volume before us, Mr. Round has gone far towards bringing about with the record of the great survey of William the Conqueror and the documents that cluster around it.

Setting out from the *Inquisitio Comitatus Cantabrigiensis*, and comparing it on the one side with the *Inquisitio Eliensis* and on the other with the Domesday Book itself, Mr. Round first reaches the important discovery that among the "socmen" there were two kinds of tenure, "thegnland" and "sokeland," distinguished by important differences. He then produces some new and quite conclusive evidence in support of Mr. Seebohm's contentions that the *caruca* of Domesday always meant a plough team of *eight* oxen, that the *hide* contained four *virgates*, and that each *virgate* contained thirty acres—though he guards himself by inserting *geld* before each of the terms *hide*, *virgate*, and *acre*. His conclusions, that is to say, are limited to the assessment of land for the purpose of taxation, and the relation of this assessment to agricultural management is left undetermined. Next comes the most exciting discovery of all, viz., that in the "hidated" portions of England, the "hidation" was evidently arranged in multiples of a five-hide unit. In a large number of cases the "Hundred" itself was reckoned at a hundred hides—a fact that clearly has a direct bearing on the origin of that territorial division. Nor is this all; there is much to make it seem probable that "it was the Hundred itself which was assessed for geld, and which was held responsible for its payment." Moreover, it is clear that "the part which is played in the hidated district of England by the five-hide unit is played in the Danish districts by a unit of six carucates." In the Danish districts there were probably some other peculiarities; chief of them a small "Hundred," usually composed of 12 carucates, and forming a subdivision of the Wapentake. But the broad distinction between the five-hide-unit area and the six-carucate-unit area is beyond doubt, and indeed lies on the surface of the evidence, when once it has been pointed out; and it will have to be taken into account by all future writers.

The other main theme of the book is the origin of knight's fees. Here Mr. Round's view is not quite so novel, for he has already presented it in the pages of the *English Historical Review*. Taking for his point of departure the returns made to the Exchequer in 1166, to which hitherto but scant attention has been paid, Mr. Round argues convincingly that the view generally accepted, on Dr. Stubbs's authority, is altogether mistaken; that instead of the Norman Conquest making no change save in the direction of greater definiteness in the obligations resting on the landholders, and these obligations continuing to be determined by the hidage or value of the holding, the tenants-in-chief received their fiefs from the Conqueror to hold of the Crown by a definite quota, fixed more or less arbitrarily, of military service. Strictly speaking, this is but "a theory," for no contemporary account of an enfeoffment on such terms has hitherto been found: but Mr. Round's argument backward from the known to the unknown makes it difficult to escape some such conclusion.

To these epoch-making papers on Domesday and knight-service, Mr. Round adds a number of articles of less moment, though those on "The Alleged Debate on Danegeld in 1163," and "The Oxford Debate on Foreign Service in 1197," are not to be overlooked in any consideration of the constitutional position of the Church. He adds, also, and here we cannot but think him not altogether well advised, a selection from his *Quarterly* and other papers on Mr. Freeman's account of the battle of Hastings. The quantity of argumentative writing on the two sides is so great, Mr. Round and Mr. Archer are both such good mediævalists and such honest scholars, the question as to the "palisade" has been so confused by the introduction of the side issue of the "shield-wall," that a reviewer will hesitate long before he commits himself to a positive conclusion. After all, there are many other points wherein Mr. Freeman's incomplete information and over-hasty judgment can be shown with far less question. Moreover, the current of historical thought is rapidly turning away from the sort of anticipatory democratic enthusiasm which colored all Freeman's judgment of past institutions. Very soon Freeman's work will come to be estimated aright, both in its strength and its weakness; and meanwhile we grudge time and energy spent

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on the "palisade," which Mr. Round, we feel sure, could turn to better account.

It is curious to contrast Mr. Round's outspoken and not over-sympathetic criticism of Freeman with his carefully reverential attitude towards Dr. Stubbs. Doubtless Freeman was less adequately equipped for writing the history of the eleventh and twelfth centuries; doubtless his more positive temperament led him to more definite statements, while his friend avoided committing himself; but we cannot help asking ourselves what Mr. Round would have said if Dr. Stubbs had been, let us say, a German scholar, and not an English Conservative. For, in spite of Freeman's extravagances and Dr. Stubbs's moderation, the underlying conceptions of both were substantially the same—just as the Radical theory and the Whig theory of government are at bottom identical. Both, like Waitz, their German exemplar, seem to have carried back to the past the ideas of equality and self-government which have characterized our own age. The destructive process which Mr. Round has set going will not, it may be anticipated, stop with Mr. Freeman.

The time has certainly come for constitutional history to be written by Conservatives. And yet the presence in this admirable volume of a few pages (394–398), rather more in place in the *Quarterly Review*, suggests the reflection that if Liberal spectacles are not altogether satisfactory for looking at the past, Conservative spectacles are not to be altogether trusted for a complete view of the present.

Memoirs of Frederick A. P. Barnard, D.D., LL.D., L.H.D., D.C. L., Tenth President of Columbia College in the City of New York. By John Fulton. Columbia University Press (Macmillan & Co.). 1896.

WHOEVER expects to find in these memoirs a complete disclosure of those qualities of Dr. Barnard's personality which invested it with a certain halo in the popular imagination, will be disappointed. Something is here to account for that halo—his enthusiasm, his progressive spirit, an undying boyishness in him, responding to the boyishness of his students in one college after another, and securing for their offences generous consideration; but there are other things set down as frankly which make the halo dimmer for our instructed mind than it was when we set out.

Born in Sheffield, Mass., in the year of many great ones, 1809, at the tender age of four he was being schooled by Orville Dewey, the distinguished Unitarian preacher. But, though his education began so early, it was throughout extremely imperfect, and he did not consider that he was ever really educated at all. It is an interesting circumstance that, in the Stockbridge Academy, Mark Hopkins, afterwards the President of Williams College, was continually pitted against Barnard in all sorts of generous intellectual rivalries. Barnard's admission to Yale and his experience there repeat in a general way many other accounts that we have had of the feebleness and slackness of the college at and about the time of his attendance (1824-28). Not having studied arithmetic at all since his childhood, he devoted a few weeks to cramming it, and so discovered the beginning of an aptitude which afterward grew steadily with his growth and strengthened with his strength. At his graduation he was next upon the honor list to Horace Binney, jr., who excelled him in his classics. Barnard was the youngest student in his class.

His predilection was for the law; but inherited, incurable, and increasing deafness compelled a different course. The chapter on his life in Hartford, whither he went directly from college, with glimpses of Catherine and Harriet Beecher, George D. Prentice, Whittier, Park Benjamin, and Fanny Fern, is the most entertaining in the book. He was a man of orations, and his first one was prepared for a Fourth of July celebration at Sheffield in 1829. It was a plea for the Colonization Society's plan of negro deportation. But even this was too radical, the village Elders thought, for popular approval, and he substituted for it one of the regulation sort. His deafness carried him back to Hartford, after a year's tutorship at Yale, to teach in Gallaudet's Deaf and Dumb Asylum, from which Gallaudet had just retired. Similar work followed in New York, whence in 1838 he went to Alabama and remained there until 1854, as professor of mathematics in the infant State University, which on his arrival had just been completely broken up by the insubordination of the students and the resignation of the faculty. Politics as well as education interested him, and an oration which he gave at Tuskaloosa, July 4, 1851, is here reproduced entire. It did not go very near the heart of the matter. The connection of involuntary labor and respectable idleness as cause and effect was the most vigorous thrust. With a mental reservation in favor of slavery, he was eloquent for the Union as "a peaceful asylum of the oppressed"—"the fettered thousands of other lands." As time went on, Dr. Barnard's complicity with the industrial system of the South became much more pronounced. Going to Oxford, Mississippi, as Chancellor of the State University, he ultimately became subdued to what he worked in to a remarkable degree for a New Englander of education and character. As his biographer says:

> "He accepted slavery as an unwelcome fact; he acquiesced in it as an established fact; he defended it as a fact that could not, in his opinion, be annulled or eliminated from the social state of the South; and finally he participated in it by becoming, of his own will, a slaveholder."

Subjected to suspicion, he replied: "I was born at the North; that I cannot help. . . . I am a slaveholder, and, if I know myself, I am 'sound on the slavery question.'"

As the catastrophe drew near, "he was equally indignant at the Northern agitators who were ready to imperil the Union for the sake of hastening emancipation, and at the Southern agitators whom he believed to be plotting the disruption of the Union." "There is not," says his biographer, "the slightest doubt that in his heart of hearts he was a Union man; but he behaved with such consistent prudence that his sentiments exposed him to no danger." Here, and in this connection, it is impossible to avoid a sense of something unsympathetic and sarcastic in the tone of the biographer. Leaving Mississippi, Dr. Barnard remained quietly at Norfolk for some time, and on the fall of that place in May, 1862, he passed within the Northern lines. His doubts were now completely dissipated, and in a little while he was a flaming Unionist, publishing in 1863 a "Letter to the President of the United States by a Refugee" in which slavery was denounced as something worse than "the sum of all villanies." His biographer comments severely on this letter, going so far as to deny that he was a "refugee" in any proper sense of the word. There is something of the manner of Purcell's Life of Manning in the remark that, as a consequence of this letter, "his appointment to some permanent position of honor and usefulness at the North was assured; and, on the resignation of President King, he was elected as President of Columbia College."

The longest chapter in the book gives a brief history of the College, and in the four succeeding chapters the salient points of Dr. Barnard's administration are clearly brought out—his sympathy with scientific studies, with an elective course of study, and with the higher education of women. It is not without good reason that Columbia's College for Women bears his name, although its success may be regarded as an injurious criticism on the method of coeducation for which Dr. Barnard strove, but which he was unable to secure.

Algebra und Logik der Relative, der Vorlesungen über die Algebra der Logik. Von Dr. Ernst Schroeder. Leipzig: Teubner. 1895. Vol. I., Part I. 8vo, pp. 649.

SCHRÖDER'S great treatise on deductive logic, the most extensive that has ever been written, cannot well be neglected in Germany; and it is hard to imagine how any person who has been through the work can ever be again guilty of such logical absurdities as have been scattered hitherto through the very best of German text-books. Everything, or almost everything, so far written about the logic of relatives has made use of some kind of technical algebra. The result has been to convey the idea that the logic of relations is an exceedingly specialized branch of logic. This is not true. At least, those who cultivate it maintain that it is much more general than ordinary logic. They hold, too, that our ordinary reasonings, so far as they are deductive, are not, in the main, such syllogisms as the books have taught, but are just such inferences as are particularly dealt with in this new branch of logic.

To make this plain, they point to the fact that the old syllogistic inference can be worked by machinery, but characteristic relative inferences cannot be performed by any mere mechanical rule whatever. Alike in the forms of inference which they have added to logic, and in the old syllogism, the relativists trace the following steps: first, the choice of premises, and second, the bringing together, or colligation, of the premises chosen, and the union of them in one conjunctive proposition. They show that, even in non-relative logic, there are occasional cases in which there are different ways of connecting premises: and, in the logic of relatives, the ways are simply innumerable, for it makes a difference *how often one and the same proposition is taken as a premise*. This being the case, it is plain that a machine cannot indicate *the* conclusion from given premises, since the number of such conclusions is endless. The different premises having been united into one, this one is subjected to certain inferential transformations, which in the case of ordinary syllogism can be analyzed into two steps. Following upon these, there is a substitution of a "term of second intention," or logical conception, for an ordinary conception of experience; and, finally, this logical term is removed. At every step of this there are different courses which reason may pursue; so that the conduct of the reasoning far transcends the powers of any machine. Nor can our ordinary procedure in thinking possibly be mapped out in advance by turning the crank of a machine.

We will not find fault with Dr. Schröder for devoting his own researches to the solution of problems which American thinkers had put

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aside as of inferior interest, on account of their special and technical character; for every inquirer should follow his own bent. Besides, it is extremely useful to place within reach of German philosophers a work which may train them to a really precise logic. We repeat that it would be needless to fear that the work will be passed over in neglect and silence. To affect to treat such a treatise with contempt would, in Germany, expose any man who might attempt it to severe blame. It cannot, therefore, but prove a useful book. Another "Abteilung" of it still remains to appear, although nearly 2,000 large octavo pages are already before the public; and we may hope that, in that concluding part, Dr. Schröder may yet show how some of those who have laid the foundations of this method of studying logic, conceive that it ought to modify those general notions about reasoning and other mental processes which are expressed or implied in the hurried talk of the street, and leave their traces upon all our thought, and also how it ought to modify our general philosophical conceptions—conceptions based far more upon logical analysis than upon anything else.

As this is a branch of study in which American students have done more than their share of the work, our readers may like a slight hint of what the nature of the new light is supposed to be. First, what is the Logic of Relatives? It is a subject treated in all the more complete mediæval handbooks, and hinted at by Aristotle. But it was Robert Leslie Ellis, the editor of Bacon's philosophical works, who first got some idea of how it ought to appear in a modern shape. Namely, instead of analyzing a proposition into subject and predicate, it analyzes it into subject, predicate, and objects—which last it conceives as so many additional subjects. In 1858 Augustus De Morgan published a long memoir on the subject, in which, besides establishing many important truths, he clearly showed that, instead of being a special branch of logic, it is, in fact, a great generalization of the old conceptions. In 1870 appeared the first of a series of contributions by an American writer, Mr. C. S. Peirce, one of which forms the acknowledged basis of the present volume by Dr. Schröder, who, however, has remodelled the whole and made extensive additions. Other Americans have materially advanced the subject, especially Prof. O. C. Mitchell of Marietta, to whose work both Dr. Schröder and Mr. Peirce attach a high value. Students all over Europe have done good work, most of them following more or less closely the methods of Peirce. Mr. A. B. Kempe, however, formerly President of the London Mathematical Society, in an important memoir in the Philosophical Transactions, has struck out an original path.

The first general notion of logic which becomes profoundly modified by the study of relatives, is that of deductive reasoning itself, which the old logic represents to be something purely abstract, intellectual, and virtually mechanical. The new school not only declare that deduction is regulated by choice and a deliberate plan, but, further, that it reaches its conclusions by observation; in fact, they hold that it differs from inductive reasoning mainly in this, that it observes objects of our own creation—imaginary or graphical—instead of objects over which we have relatively little control. This doctrine is not unlike Mill's analysis of the "pons asinorum." It is a two-edged weapon, cutting both of the great philosophical doctrines pretty seriously.

Another common notion of a logical kind which is strangely transformed by the new views is that of generalization. The generalization of the books is, for the Relativists, merely the simplest and least important variety of a process which we will refrain from defining, but of which an example is the passage of thought of the geometer by which he comes to conceive that a straight line returns into itself.

Le Tartuffe des Comédiens. Par P. Régnier. Paris: Ollendorff. 1896.

THIS is a really fine and instructive piece of work. M. Régnier's intention had been to publish an edition of Molière from the actor's point of view, and probably no man is better qualified for the task; but advancing years have circumscribed his ambition, and the present volume is the only one he expects to bring out. This is a disappointment, for "L'Avare," "Les Femmes Savantes," "Le Misanthrope," "Le Malade Imaginaire," annotated and accompanied by studies such as these in "Le Tartuffe," would be of the highest value to students of Molière and of literature in general. The actor who has, to use the French expression, to get into the skin of the character he is to play, must of necessity study that character in its every aspect and in its relation to every other character in the play, to the tone and to the purpose of the play. That is, he must do precisely the sort of work that any genuine student of literature must do in order thoroughly to understand the author and his productions. Every line, every word then becomes important; nothing must be slighted, still less overlooked. The analysis must be exact and it must be comprehensive. And these words fitly characterize the studies and notes of M. Régnier. It is quite safe to say that every lover of Molière, every investigator of the character of *Tartuffe*, will find in this book some new point or some new light upon certain parts of the complex characters of *Tartuffe* and *Elmire*.

M. Régnier discusses the question of the real character of the impostor as a necessary preliminary to the indication of the manner in which it is to be played, and he comes to the conclusion that, to make even a partial buffoon of him, to exaggerate the possibly comic side, is to err gravely. In other words, without naming Coquelin the elder, he condemns the travesty of *Tartuffe* which that commercial actor presented to American audiences after having inflicted it on French ones. The play is a comedy, no doubt, and contains scenes of the highest style of purely comic art, but it goes far beyond that: it is a powerful drama, in which terror thrills the spectator. *Tartuffe* is not only a hypocrite whose sanctified tone and upturned eyes disgust, but a formidable scoundrel, utterly unscrupulous and deadly in his vengeance. These points are admirably brought out by M. Régnier, who has not failed to perceive in the depth and power of Molière's genius, as exhibited in his celebrated play, a kinship to Shakspere's philosophy and profound insight into human nature. Molière's "Tartuffe" stands among the great masterpieces of the French drama, alongside of Corneille's "Polyeucte" and Racine's "Phèdre."

The modest manner in which M. Régnier urges his points and indicates interpretations is very winning, and lends a singular charm to the numerous notes and explanations. Especially worthy of close attention and sure to yield much food for profitable study are his comments on *Elmire*, on the famous "pauvre homme" scene, on the great scene of the unmasking of the hypocrite, and on the final catastrophe. A series of volumes of this description, taking up the masterpieces of French classical tragedy and comedy, would be of incalculable help to teachers and students of literature.

The Silva of North America. By C. S. Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University. Illustrated with figures and analyses drawn from nature by Charles Edward Faxon. Vol. IX. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 4to, pp. 190, plates 57.

THE ninth volume of Prof. Sargent's 'Silva contains descriptions of the arborescent species of *Cupuliferæ* which remain after the oaks are disposed of. The latter were brought into volume 8. First come the chestnuts and their nearest allies; then follow in succession the birches, alders, and myricas, and lastly, the willows and poplars. Illustration and treatment continue substantially unchanged. The beautiful plates are full of instructive detail, and exhibit the artistic feeling which has characterized all those which Mr. Faxon has given us before. He is particularly successful in imparting spirit to his larger figures, giving to them an air of freshness and elasticity which is as far removed as possible from the conventional drawings of plants found in many treatises. There is not, at any point, the slightest sacrifice of accuracy for the sake of securing this spirited effect: Mr. Faxon is too profound and true a botanist to permit this; therefore his figures and analytical sketches possess the highest degree of permanent value.

In the present volume the chestnuts are introduced by the great golden-leaved chinquapin of the northwest coast, a tree sometimes reaching the height of one hundred and fifty feet, with a trunk clear of any branches for more than a third of this distance, and ten feet through at the base. It is a member of an interesting genus, *Castanopsis*, which may be fairly recognized as a connecting link between the oaks and the true chestnuts, and is most fully represented in southeastern Asia. Of the true chestnuts we have two within the limits of the area of the 'Silva,' the chinquapin, *Castanea pumila*, and the large chestnut so widely known to all our readers. The latter species masquerades in the present volume under the specific name *dentata*, having had to resign the name it was known by in Prof. Sargent's work on the 'Forest Trees of the United States,' for the tenth census; but it is in good company, since its near relative, the beech, has had to take the name *Fagus Americana* in place of the one used before by Prof. Sargent, *ferruginea*, as well as of the one which has been adopted by a late catalogue, to wit, *atropunicea*. These serious triflings over names are not rendering the study of botany very attractive nowadays. Out of the confusion which precedes a rearrangement there comes a good deal of annoying dust which may be even blinding. It seems, as we have said before, in noticing previous volumes of this work, a pity that the 'Silva' should share in the confusion incident to the times. Many of the names adopted in the 'Silva' cannot satisfy those who are thoroughgoing in their reform; for instance, they cannot be attached to the trees in the proposed New York Botanical Garden, and they do not satisfy the conservatives who have asked that changes should be made only where they are absolutely necessary.

After this comment has freed the mind of the reviewer from all sense of complicity, no-

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thing but praise remains for the text. Prof. Sargent and his associates have done all of their work well, and have cast most of it into convenient form. Six species of birch are treated of, five alders, and three myricas, one of the latter being the wax-myrtle, or bayberry. This last is known on the northern Atlantic coast as a pleasant, sweet-smelling shrub, but along the Gulf it becomes a tree forty feet in height, and claims a place in the 'Silva.' The willows, always a difficult group, because they intergrade so freely and are separated from each other only by characters which depend on flowers, and leaves which have to be collected at different times, have been well elaborated in this work. The resources of the Arnold Arboretum have placed at the disposal of the author and artist a wealth of material for description and delineation which is virtually without a rival. The fresh material could be examined at the most favorable times, and the results are apparent in the excellent discriminations. The same may be said of the treatment of the poplars, with which the volume ends.

The Structure and Life of Birds. By F. W. Headley, M.A., F.Z.S., etc. With 78 Illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. xx, 412.

"THE aim of this book is an ambitious one. It attempts to give good evidence of the development of birds from reptilian ancestors, to show what modifications in their anatomy have accompanied their advance to a more vigorous life, and, after explaining, as far as possible, their physiology, to make clear the main principles of their noble accomplishment, flight, the visible proof and expression of their high vitality. After this it deals, principally, with the subjects of color and song, instinct and reason, migration, and the principles of classification, and lastly gives some hints as to the best methods of studying birds."

Our author seems to have lectured on ornithology to his classes and others, and very probably his book represents a syllabus of such discourses. It is largely a treatise on anatomy, with special reference to the evolution of the flying organism and to the physiological mechanism of flight. This is his main insistence, where he is at his best; the "after this" of the above quotation brings the programme to its conclusion at an accelerated pace. The leading facts of avian structure are concisely set forth in the simplest possible terms; the evolutionary features of the case, which no one has doubted since Huxley coined such words as *Sauropsida* and *Ornithoscelida*, are clearly traced. At the same time, we fear that the author brings the pterodactyls into too clear a light, so to speak. All he says is true enough, properly interpreted; but a reader might easily get an impression, not intended to be conveyed, of closer relationships between pterodactyls and birds than actually exist. This old reptilian mechanism for flight was a side-issue, like the present chiropteran modification among mammals to the same volant ends, and not in the direct line of avian descent from dinosaurian ancestry. The author ought not to be misunderstood in this matter, but he is likely to be, on the part of a good many readers. This portion of the work is the best illustrated of any, with numerous clear cuts of the somewhat diagrammatic sort, which are practically more helpful in anatomy than a more perfect representation of the actual intricacies would be. The diction is equally clear; it is crisp, with use of short words instead of long ones as far as possible, showing that the writer is no novice in his craft, though we note a number of misstatements of facts which he could easily have avoided with more care and less haste in making printer's copy.

Whether all that Mr. Headley says of flight will be found agreeable with the consensus of expert opinion on that subject, can be better foretold after the event—namely, when experts shall have come to any considerable agreement among themselves. The author has evidently been a close observer of the facts in the case; he handles them well and comes to some definite conclusions. He also has due regard to the results of others, such as Marey, Alix, Gadow, Fürbringer, Pettigrew, Muybridge, and many more; he is quite competent to discuss the mechanical principles involved, as well as anatomical structure and physiological action; he inclines to credit some of Gätke's views regarding great heights and velocities; altogether, he is well equipped for the aerial expedition—even for the soaring crux of the problem. Yet after all comes this warning, not to say wailing, note in conclusion:

"This ends my account of flight. Much, I hope, has been made clear, but much remains that is inexplicable. Mathematicians will, no doubt, some day arrive at a formula of flight that will claim to be a complete solution of the problem. Nevertheless, birds will still excite the wonder of men. Even those who can quote the formula at a moment's notice will, when they look at a swift doing his sixty miles an hour for mere play, or if they happen to see a soaring adjutant, relapse for a moment into blank astonishment, the mental state of the Pacific islander when a steamship first invades his lonely seas and claims a place in his philosophy. It will always be difficult to forget for long together that, however much is learnt on such a subject as flight, a great deal more remains to be learnt."

Gätke might have written that, and it is always the same when an able, honest observer lays down his quill, and feels how blunt the nib has worn after all he has done. As to swifts doing sixty miles an hour for play, the present reviewer has seen one of them, *Aëronautes melanoleucus* (after Baird, or *saxatilis*, after Woodhouse), doing nearer 260 miles an hour with perfect ease; and a relative of the adjutant-bird, our wood-ibis, *Tantalus loculator*, soaring on motionless pinions a mile or more high, thermometer 115° in the shade, air dead calm (at least where he stood), giving some color to the suggestion that has been made that such birds go aloft to enjoy a nap on the wing in some cooler upper air.

The rest of the book need not detain us much further than to mildly criticise the chapter on principles of classification, which hardly seems up to the mark. Perhaps, however, the author meant to be taken literally, and did not meditate the desirable application of those principles to any extent; for his principles are sound enough. His refutation of the supposed function of chalazæ in making the yolk stay right side up when the egg is rolled over, will worry those who have written in the wake of Owen on that subject. The hoatzin article is a good one—few realize that all such lizard-like birds did not leave the world's stage with the archæopteryx. The book is indexed, if hardly with the minuteness which would have been desirable, and its excellence of manufacture is up to the standard which Messrs. Macmillan have taught us to expect in the issues of their house.

Campaigning in South Africa and Egypt. By Major-General W. C. F. Molyneux. Macmillan. 1896. Pp. viii, 287, 8vo.

THE larger part of this volume is devoted to an account, by an English staff-officer, of the Kaffir and Zulu wars of 1878 and the following year. To the non-professional reader its chief interest lies in the personal incidents, which are well told, and the pen portraits of well-known characters, as Sir Bartle Frere, the Prince Imperial, and Lord Wolseley. Regarded as a history, Gen. Molyneux's narrative is somewhat obscure and hard to follow, even with the aid of his sketch-maps, and is overloaded with technical details. Two facts, however, are very clearly shown: the great difficulty of the country for carrying on military operations, and the valor and extraordinary discipline of the Zulus. From an incident in the closing days of the war, it is evident that they had also a high sense of honor. In this they stand out in sharp contrast to the Boers, judging from the manner in which these treated a comrade of the author's who was so unfortunate as to fall into their hands during the war for the independence of the Transvaal. A most graphic description is given of some of the circumstances connected with the death of the Prince Imperial. The anecdotes related confirm the common impression of him as an impulsive, high-spirited youth, impatient of restraint and burning with a desire to distinguish himself.

There is little that is noteworthy in the General's account of the campaign against Arabi Pasha in 1882. The principal point emphasized is the extraordinary secrecy which Sir Garnet Wolseley kept in regard to his plans—the late Sir Edward Hamley, then commanding the second division, not being informed of them till the army and fleet were in motion. Gen. Molyneux, in describing his life in the desert during the days preceding the battle of Tel el-Kebir, calls attention to a fact, which we do not remember to have seen mentioned before, "That horses do not seem to be deceived by mirage. No matter how thirsty they may be, they never rush wildly to what you imagine to be a lake; and if you know your horse well, after a time in the desert you can always tell by his behavior whether the four-legged dancing thing you are approaching is a horse or a camel."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Broken Links. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.
As You Like It. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Barnes, Willis. Dame Fortune Smiled. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Corelli, Marie. Cameos. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
De Medici, Chas. The A B C of Geometry. 25c. Object-Lessons in Geometry. 50c. Study of Geometry. 75c. A. Lovell & Co.
Fowler, A. Popular Telescopic Astronomy. Whittaker. 60c.
Gollancz, Israel. Romeo and Juliet. Titus Andronicus. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45c.
Hart, Dr. Ernest. Hypnotism, Mesmerism, and the New Witchcraft. New ed., enlarged. Appletons. $1.50.
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